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ABSTRACT

This instructional package represents a portion of the National Training and Development Service Urban Management Curriculum Development Project. The purpose of this package is to provide a general understanding of public personnel administration. It is intended to introduce the beginning student to the purposes, goals, and function of personnel administration in public organizations. The ten modules included in the package are: (1) Manpower Planning; (2) Selection; (3) Affirmative Action; (4) Testing; (5) Performance Evaluation; (6) Transfer and Promotion; (7) Training and Development; (8) Classification and Career Systems; (9) Compensation; and (10) Discipline and Grievance. The package is designed for both independent study and for instruction in workshops. (MK)

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PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

MANAGEMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCES

MODULES 1-10

Developed by

UNIVERSITY EXTERNAL STUDIES PROGRAM

UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH

Jean L. Rogers, Principal Developer
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Under Contract to

THE URBAN MANAGEMENT CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT PROJECT

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Package XIII

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION 848: MANAGEMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCES

COURSE GUIDE

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this course is to provide a general understanding of public personnel administration. It is intended to introduce the beginning student to the purposes, goals, and functions of personnel administration as found in the context of a public organization. Any student who plans a career in the public service will benefit from gaining an understanding of the personnel policies and procedures which will structure and control the work environment. The readings should be of particular interest to those students who are or will be supervisors and are responsible for all personnel matters in an assigned area.

Some information on personnel administration among private employees is offered where a comparison with private organizations is felt to be of value in helping the student to gain an understanding of personnel administration. The course will provide a general view of the subject while detailing certain illustrations and should assist the student in gaining insights useful for practical application of the information.

COURSE RATIONALE AND GOALS

The importance, role, and functions of personnel administration have expanded greatly since the late 1930s. The growth of organized labor, federal commission regulations and guidelines, and employee demands for job satisfaction all contributed to personnel administration's evolution from a record keeping function to that of the management of human resources. Personnel administration in the public sector has always been a concern of those interested in the study of government. However, public personnel administration is now attracting more interest than just academic curiosity. It is now recognized that human resources are limited, and public employees must compete with private employers for the best available workers. Public employers must, therefore, become knowledgeable of personnel administration to enable them to analyze and plan for organizational needs and to implement programs to achieve their manpower needs. This course will assist public administrators in learning to recognize employees as a resource and to acquire the administrative skills necessary for its management.

This course is concerned with developing a general understanding of personnel administration. This is necessary because the public administrator's effectiveness is directly related to the level of skill possessed in the management of human resources. Managing people at work requires specialized management skills and specific knowledge of personnel processes. At the conclusion of this course it is hoped that the student will be able to:

1. Explain the need for systematic analysis of manpower requirements (manpower planning).
2. Analyze the selection process in terms of its function, policies, and procedures. Summarize the requirements for effective interviewing.
3. Discuss and debate the major issues of testing.
4. Summarize the issues and problems which have grown out of Affirmative Action requirements.
5. Provide a rationale for the functions of performance evaluation.
6. Describe the functions and uses of transfer and promotion systems.
7. Explain the purposes and role of employee training and development in increasing and/or developing the skills and abilities of employees and improving the operations of the organization.
8. Analyze the organizational rationale for developing formal classification structures and their specific usage in restructuring old positions and/or creating new positions and suggest possible career ladders in given classification systems.
9. Describe the purposes and types of compensation and debate its role as a motivator.

As the preceding Introduction and this Rationale and Goals section suggest, this course focuses on the basic personnel procedures. Accordingly, one major topic has been purposefully excluded; namely, labor relations and unionization. Unionization in the public sector is a relatively recent phenomenon. Since the mid-1960s, the public unionization movement has accelerated greatly. Unionization is a legitimate concern for the public administrator and of special importance to the student of personnel administration.

Unionization, however, is considered to be beyond the scope of this course. It is an extremely complex issue which introduces many new concerns and variables into the operation of personnel departments. For this reason, it has been decided--after much thought and with valuable advice from local personnel management practitioners--that labor relations and unionization should not be presented until after students have carefully developed a working knowledge of the basic concepts and practices of personnel administration.

COURSE ORGANIZATION

The course is organized around the various personnel functions and is divided into the following ten modules.

1. Manpower Planning: After establishing a rationale for the uses of and needs for employment planning, attention will focus on several techniques for planning an organization's demand for employees. The role of cost/benefit analysis and the social consequences of manpower planning are discussed.

2. Selection: The requirements for recruiting are first examined before considering the variety of factors involved in making selection decisions, especially in both merit and patronage employment systems. The use and completion of Personal Qualifications Statements and the interviewing process are both explored in some detail.

3. Affirmative Action: The history of discrimination against minorities and women is first discussed before describing the regulations and guidelines of Affirmative Action laws. The purposes and problems of Affirmative Action requirements are examined.

4. Testing: Various uses and methods of testing are presented within the legal context of the Affirmative Action laws.

5. Performance Evaluation: Beginning with the purposes and goals of employee evaluation, various methods and techniques for conducting the evaluations are described. Attention is also given to the limitations and problems of evaluating employee performance.

6. Transfer and Promotion: The major issues involved in establishing promotion policies are viewed from the perspective of both the organization and the employees. Methods and systems for identifying and moving promotable persons are examined.

7. Training and Development: The various purposes and uses of organizational training programs are discussed as they relate both to the needs of new employees and to the needs of in-service employees. Various types of training programs are described, and reasons for career development programs are presented.

8. Classification and Career Systems: The rationale for the use of classification systems is presented as the context within which to consider a number of possible classification systems of varying complexity. Several classes of career systems are explained, and, finally, career and classification systems are related to compensation plans.

9. Compensation: Compensation plans are separated into their direct and indirect components, and the bases for determining each component are presented and related to organizational and employee concerns. Methods of direct compensation and types of indirect compensation are examined in some detail.

10. Discipline and Grievance: Discipline and grievance procedures are viewed as important factors in an organization's personnel program since no organization is so well managed as to avoid the need for correction and/or punishment of employee or managerial behavioral. Policy factors and procedures for planning discipline systems will be discussed as well as the various types of difficult employees with which such systems must deal. Grievance procedures will also be discussed from the perspective of the opportunity which they afford to employees to redress their problems with management.

TEXTS

This Study Guide is the only textbook required for this course. However, one other publication is recommended to supplement Modules 2 and 3 of this Study Guide. It is:

Rogers, Jeanne L. and Fortson, Walter L., Fair Employment Interviewing. Addison-Wesley, 1976.

WORKSHOPS

The initial workshop will present an overview of the course content, organization, and rationale. There will be an explanation of the objectives of the course and the expectations for student performance as well as some activities designed to introduce you to the field of personnel administration and which will assist in preparing you to begin your course of study.

For the second and third workshops, please obtain a copy of an employee handbook from a public employer. (A private employer's employee handbook may be used if necessary.) Those sections of the handbook covering policies and procedures discussed in this course should be read as you complete the corresponding module assignments. That is, you should read the handbook policies and/or procedures in terms of how well they conform to or differ from the information presented in each module of this course.

Please remember to bring the employee handbook with you to the second and third workshops. As part of your preparation for these Workshops, you are asked to analyze and be prepared to discuss one policy or procedure from the handbook with which you disagree. The selected policy and/or procedure should be related to the material that you have covered in the module to date.

The workshop discussions of policies/procedures from your handbook with which you disagree should help you to complete an assignment which will contribute to your course grade. Although the workshops are not mandatory, they will help you to complete the following assignment:

> *Rewrite one employee handbook policy and/or procedure in the context of what you have learned in this course. It can be your "ideal" policy. Please send two copies of it to the instructor with a copy of the policy and/or procedure as stated in the handbook. Also include a brief description of the organization from which the handbook was obtained. [One copy of your response will be returned to you with feedback and a grade.]*

COURSE REQUIREMENTS AND GRADING

There are no examinations or tests. Your grade will be based on the Module Assignments plus the Workshop-related Assignment (see preceeding section on Workshops) which you send to your instructor. Each assignment--Module and Workshop-related--will be given a letter grade and will be returned to you with detailed instructor comments. If you are not satisfied with your grade on any assignment, you will have the option of one resubmission for each Module Assignment and the Workshop-related Assignment. All assignments will be weighted equally.

STUDY SUGGESTIONS

The modules have been designed for use by individual students without the direct supervision of a teacher as occurs in a traditional classroom setting. Provisions have been made for instructor feedback to students on their performance of each of the module assignments.

All modules share a number of common components and follow a similar plan.

1. Key Terms and Concepts: Terms which are considered important for studying and understanding the materials presented in the module are listed in a box in the beginning of each module.

2. Introduction: The beginning of each module briefly describes the topics and major concerns which will form the focus of the module.

3. Objectives: The objectives provide explicit statements about the concepts and ideas which you are expected to master from your study of the module readings and questions. These objectives define the content which will be tested in the module assignments.

4. Overview: This table is provided as a mechanism for assisting you in studying by pointing up which specific grouping of study questions and readings directly relate to respective module objectives. It is expected that by presenting a clear association between (a) several of the study questions that bear on a similar issue, (b) the readings which treat this issue, and (c) the specific module objective to which they contribute, you will have an operational means for attaining the module objectives.

5. Module Readings: A series of original essays have been written expressly for this course which introduce and explain the important concepts, skills, and methods dealt with in this course. Illustrations from personal experiences of the author and from other authorities are cited. Additional readings by other authors are included where appropriate to round out the presentation of the concepts and their applications.

6. Study Questions: After each section of the readings, a series of questions are presented to assist you in organizing and studying the information in the preceding section. Keep these questions in mind as you read the section, then draft your answer. An answer key is provided at the end of each module to allow you to check your answers to the study questions.

7. Module Assignment: An original assignment which normally requires that you apply the information studied in the module is included at the end of each module. Each assignment has been prepared to encourage the thoughtful use of much of the module information. Assignments should be completed as you finish studying each module and mailed to the instructor. This will allow the instructor to provide feedback which may be useful to you when completing the following module assignments.

8

TIME SCHEDULE

Each module is planned to take approximately one week for you to complete with the exception of three of the modules. Only Module 2 (Selection), Module 8 (Classification and Career Systems), and Module 9 (Compensation) will take approximately two weeks to complete. Please keep this in mind as you plan your study schedule for this term.

A FINAL NOTE

Many of the Module Assignments will require you to discuss an organization (preferably a public agency) using the concepts presented in the module. It is, therefore, recommended that you make arrangements with someone in an organization to discuss the organization's personnel efforts. Any information about an organization which you include in your responses to the assignments will be held in the strictest confidence. The purpose of the assignments is solely to help you to apply the information in the modules to real-life situations.

PA 848
MANAGEMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCES

MODULE 1:
MANPOWER PLANNING

PREPARED
BY:
JEAN ROGERS

UNIVERSITY EXTERNAL STUDIES PROGRAM

Developed by the University External Studies Program and the Graduate School of Public and International Affairs, University of Pittsburgh. Under Contract to the Urban Management Curriculum Development Project, The National Training and Development Service, 5028 Wisconsin Avenue, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20016. Funded by the Office of the Assistant Secretary for Policy Development and Research, U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development.

MODULE 1: MANPOWER PLANNING

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MODULE 1: MANPOWER PLANNING

KEY TERMS AND CONCEPTS

- Manpower
- Manpower Planning
- Manpower Demands
- Skills Inventory
- Unit Demand
- Job Design
- Job Rotation
- Job Enlargement
- Job Enrichment
- Cost/Benefit Analysis

INTRODUCTION

For an organization to survive and prosper, it must maximize every resource at its disposal. Manpower is both a major resource and a major cost. Management must recognize the problems this presents and develop programs following the planning principles and techniques described in this module which will benefit both the organization and the individual.

Manpower planning is the process by which an organization analyzes its manpower needs to assure the achievement of organizational goals. Manpower planning requires that the organization:

1. determine its goals and objectives,
2. analyze its goals and objectives to determine the gross human resource requirements,
3. analyze the manpower on hand and compare that to the manpower required,
4. establish its net manpower requirements, and then
5. formulate its manpower programs to meet the organizational goals and objectives.

Manpower is any organization's greatest resource, but manpower planning is frequently a neglected organizational function. Such neglect can have a negative effect on the achievement of the organizational goals and objectives.

When used properly, manpower planning provides for the systematic replacement of personnel who vacate positions within the organization--either as a result or transfers, promotions, retirement, or resignation. It is an integral part of personnel administration and is most directly related to recruitment, selection, training, promotion, and career development. Manpower planning techniques should not be superimposed upon the organization but should be designed to fit specific organizational needs and requirements.

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

When you have completed the module readings, study questions, and the assignment, you should be able to:

1. State the purpose and need for organizations to concern themselves with managing their human resources.
2. Identify and describe the five steps involved in the process of manpower planning.
3. Explain the possible risks and benefits of a manpower planning program to an organization.
4. Explain why an organization that you have selected to study should or should not have a manpower planning program.

OVERVIEW

Objectives	Tasks	Resources	Evaluation
1. State the purpose and need for organizations to concern themselves with managing their human resources.	Study Question 1	Module Reading A	Self
2. Identify and describe the five steps involved in the process of manpower planning.	Study Questions 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8	Module Reading B, D (optional)	Self
3. Explain the possible risks and gains of a manpower planning program to an organiaztion.	Study Questions 9, 10, 11 Module Assignment	Module Reading C Module Readings and your experience	Self Instructor feedback
4. Explain why an organization that you have selected to study should or should not have a manpower planning program.	Module Assignment	Module Readings and your experience	Instructor feedback

A. A CASE FOR MANPOWER PLANNING

If we accept the premise that manpower planning is necessary for organizational success, then why are such programs not found to a greater degree? What factors have operated to retard the growth and development of manpower planning? A brief discussion of the history of manpower planning will answer these questions and assist the student in placing today's manpower processes and problems in perspective.

Historically, the personnel department had been responsible for the administration of employee-related policies and procedures. Its main function was record-keeping, and this task was considered only slightly different from, but less important than, materials record-keeping. Employees were viewed as being easily replaceable, and little thought was given to manpower planning. However, since the 1920's, three factors developed which forced employers to become more concerned with human resources and manpower planning:

1. Union growth and power escalated during this period, and unions made increasingly forceful demands upon employers.
2. New technologies appeared and changed the composition of the labor pool. New and highly technical skills accompanied the new technologies, and there were only small numbers of workers possessing such skills.
3. Legislation regarding the treatement of workers was passed, and employers no longer had free reign with employees. Restraints on employer activity forced them to view human resources in a new light.

The role of the personnel department expanded in response to these factors. Today, personnel departments are responsible for the following major functions:

Recruitment and placement
Wage and salary administration
Communications
Employee benefits
Training and development
Labor relations
Classification
Record-keeping
Other miscellaneous services such as recreational, counseling, and safety programs.

Once management recognized manpower as a resource, they also recognized the need to develop a mechanism to utilize manpower to its fullest potential. Manpower planning systems were developed to ". . . bring together internal and external manpower supply and organization needs." (Burack, 1972, p. 56) The primary objective of such manpower planning systems was to provide management the opportunity to utilize available human resources in a manner which benefitted both the individual employee and the organization.

To understand the processes and problems of manpower planning you must first be familiar with the characteristics of the resource. Manpower is not a homogeneous resource. It is comprised of invidiuals with many diverse motivations, skills, and abilities and should not be viewed as a homogeneous aggregate. Manpower, should also be viewed as a "decision-taking" resource. (Stainer, 1971, p. 6) Technological change and automation have moved many routine and physical processing tasks to machines. There is increasing opportunity for humans to participate in decision-taking and creative processes. Manpower must also be recognized as an asset. It is one of an organization's greatest costs and has historically been viewed as an expense rather than an income-generating resource. Yet, it is individuals, not machines or products, that innovate, make decisions, and bring to life organizational goals and objectives. Finally, manpower is a social resource. The aggregate is comprised of individuals, but the balance sheet contains more than line items and a grand total. There are sub-totals or social groups which will form within the organization. Group values and processes influence both the individual and the organization.

STUDY QUESTION

1. Why should organizations devote time and energy to manage their human resources effectively?

B. THE PROCESS OF MANPOWER PLANNING

Now that the resource has been defined the mechanisms utilized for the achievement of its potential should be described. The elements of manpower planning are generally similar to those found in any planning activity.

1. The organization must be clear about its goals and objectives. This should take into account both its immediate operations and its projected mission. As this indicates, a time perspective is required.

2. It is necessary for the organization to analyze the gross human resources that are required to continue to fulfill the day-to-day operations and to build the internal capabilities selection (promotion and training systems) to meet projected demands.

3. The organization must carefully analyze its existing human resources.

4. The existing employee capabilities should be compared with the larger figure of gross human resource requirements in order to determine the net manpower requirements. That is, the organization must determine the kinds of capabilities it must add to meet its immediate and longer-range goals and objectives.

5. It is now appropriate for the organization to formulate specific programs to allow it to add or develop the capabilities that it needs in order to accomplish its goals and objectives.

Before continuing with this section, a cautionary note must be sounded. There is always an element of uncertainty in planning. That is, the variables of the time period being considered, the size or complexity of the organization, and the human limitations will prevent any manpower plan from being absolutely accurate. But, to the extent that the organization can control the variables, "uncertainty can be treated in a realistic fashion." (Barack, 1972, p. 56) The way in which a manpower planning program is implemented should also be given as much thought as the actual program design. The best of programs will fail if the administrative and "people" problems which accompany change have not been adequately anticipated.

1. Determining the organization's goals and objectives. This is a responsibility which is generally not assigned to the personnel division of an organization. In most instances, the organizational goals and objectives are determined by the top management or chief administrators of the organization. They may conduct surveys of other management and of non-management personnel to determine what goals and objectives these latter groups consider to be appropriate. But the final decision of goals and objectives does remain with the senior administrators.

It is the responsibility of the personnel divison to obtain the most recent statement of organizational goals and objectives upon which to base the rest of the manpower planning process. It should be clear that, without a clear statement of the organization's mission (and intentions for future growth), the development of a logical manpower plan will not be possible.

2. Forecasting total manpower demands. Demand for people in any organization reflects a demand for the products or services of the organization. Therefore, forecasting requires an analysis of product or service demand. The organization's immediate and long-range plans for product or service improvement or expansion and new product or service development will have an impact on employment needs. The planner must be aware of the organization's plans for present and future output in order to determine what kinds of, how many, and when people are necessary.

Forecasting the organization's demand for labor may be accomplished at two levels. First, the organization's headquarters or central agency may be responsible. This is most effective when either a) the organization is small and uncomplicated or b) the organization is large but stable and not complex. Second, demand analysis can be decentralized. Each unit would provide an analysis which would be summarized and evaluated at a central point. This method is best utilized when the organization is volatile, complex, and/or dispersed.

The total employment forecast may be accomplished by utilizing one of five basic methods:

1. "Expert estimate: An estimation is made by a combination of systems familiarity, experience, and intuition on the part of the expert." (Glueck, 1974, p. 103) Expert estimate is the simpliest approach to manpower forecasting. General internal estimates are made on the basis of broad data. This approach can be extended by gathering similar data from similar employers in the field (approximately 20 to 30 employers) and averaging them.

2. "Historical comparison: An estimation is made by breaking the new system into subsystems similar to those already in existence Data on known systems are retrieved from information libraries and provide the basis for the manpower estimates of the new system." (Glueck, 1974, p. 103) This is a trend-projection method. It assumes that the past will be an adequate prediction of the future. It requires an analysis of past employment trends which are then extrapolated to meet future plans and objectives. Organizations which experience changes in product and/or service demand and technology should avoid this approach.

3. "Task analytic: An estimation is made by a detailed analysis of the system requirements, establishment of mission profiles and ground equipment functions, definitions of specific tasks, and a clustering of tasks. The analysis is on a person-by-person job-by-job basis in each organizational unit. Present and future requirements of the job and the skills of the incumbents are analyzed." (Glueck, 1974, p. 103) The task analytic method is costly and time consuming. Because of the costs involved in this method, it is normally only used when planning for top-management positions.

4. "Sovereign factors: An estimation is based upon identification of one or several factors that correlate highly with the item being estimated. It avoids the task of complex manipulation of multiple variables." (Glueck, 1974, p. 103) This method is technical, usually requiring the use of data processing equipment.

5. "Modeling: An estimation is made by the use of decision models such as PERT (Program Evaluation Review Technique), linear and dynamic programming, and multiple regression expression. It is typified by its objective and explicit nature." (Glueck, 1974, p. 103). This method, like the preceding one, is very technical in nature. It requires analysis on the basis of many complex factors and usually requires the use of electronic data processing equipment for data gathering, analysis, and control. (Note: These decision models are very complex; a discussion of them goes beyond the slope of this course.)

Usually, one method alone is not sufficient to forecast total organization manpower demand. A different approach for different types of manpower will often prove more effective. To assist in determining the particular techniques that are most effective, a four-step plan can be utilized:

1. Categorize types of manpower skills into homogeneous groups or functional units (e.g., secretarial, clerical, service, technical, professional, managerial).

2. Calculate requirements utilizing the most effective method for each category for the planning period.

3. Integrate these requirements centrally on a cost and performance basis.

4. Ensure a free flow of information throughout the process." (Glueck, 1974, p. 104)

Another factor which will influence which of the five methods will be selected is the time frame with which the planner will be concerned. Some occupations may be of immediate to short range concern while other may be of intermediate to long range concern. The overall forecast, therefore, may be broken down by occupational units with individual time frames for the completion of tasks.

THREE RANGES OF MANPOWER FORECASTING:

	SHORT RANGE 0-2 YEARS	INTERMEDIATE RANGE 2-5 YEARS	LONG RANGE BEYOND 5 YEARS
Demand	Authorized employment (including growth, change, and turnover)	Operating needs from budgets and plans	In some organizations the same as "Intermediate" in others; an increased awareness of changes in environment and technology--essentially judgmental.
Supply	Employee census less expected losses plus expected promotions from subordinate groups.	Manpower vacancies expected from individual promotability data derived from development plans	Management expectations of changing characteristics of employees and future available manpower.
Net Needs	Numbers and kinds of employees needed.	Numbers, kinds, dates, and levels of needs.	Management expectations of future conditions affecting immediate decisions.

Source: James Walker. "Trends in Manpower Management Research", Business Horizons 11 (August 1968): 37 - 46.

3. Analyzing the Supply of the Work Force. Manpower planning requires that the organization determine its internal needs or demand but the organization must also take steps to then determine the resources available to satisfy the identified needs. The supply of labor may be a) external, the general labor market, or b) internal, present employees. The pertinent factors for analyzing the general labor supply are the economic and demographic conditions of the environment and government and union policies. When analyzing the internal labor supply, the nature of the employees, the work tasks, and the goals of the organization should be considered. (Glueck, 1974, p. 116)

a. The External Labor Market: Once the organization is aware of its manpower needs, it may elect to recruit from the external labor market. The organization would seek employees from many segments of the market to correspond to the types of occupational categories (management, technical, service, clerical/secretarial, production, etc.) employed. Environment and demographic factors cause an immediate impact upon the search. The employer should recognize that unskilled workers can usually be found in the local community while professional or technical employees may have to be recruited from other cities or states. Economic conditions will also affect the supply of labor. Economic growth may cause rapid changes in the need for various types of employees. Recruitment will then become more competitive and costly. Government policies such as Affirmative Action and Union policies such as apprenticeship requirements or contractual replacement procedures may operate to restrict the employer's options.

b. The Internal Work Force: Today, the most frequently used tool for analyzing the supply and talents of personnel available within the organization is the skills inventory. (Glueck, 1974, p. 126). Good skills inventories enable organizations to determine quickly and expeditiously what kinds of people with specific skills are presently available if they decide to expand, to accept new contracts, or to change their strategies. It is also useful in planning for training, management development, promotion, transfer, and related personnel functions." (Glueck, 1974, p. 127) Skills inventories may be manual or computer systems and the data found in the system most often includes the names, selected characteristics, and skills of employees.

Determining what information will constitute the data base for the organization's skills inventory system is an important decision. The input must be structured to satisfy all of the organization's requirements because you can only retrieve what has been placed in the system. The input should be structured to fit each organization's peculiar needs; however, the following list contains some of the most commonly found data in an employee skills inventory:

1. name
2. social security number
3. present location
4. date of birth
5. date of employment
6. job classification or code
7. prior experience
8. history of work experience within the organization
9. specific skill knowledge
10. education
11. additional education or training since leaving school
12. foreign languages
13. publications
14. licenses
15. patents
16. hobbies
17. performance evaluations
18. present salary and salary range.

(Glueck, 1974, p. 127)

Other information such as the employee's willingness to relocate (and to what geographic regions) and the individuals own goals and objectives may be included to make the system responsive to individual as well as organizational needs.

Data is usually gathered by means of the questionnaire or the interview. The questionnaire is fast and generally less costly when the number of employees to be surveyed is large. However, the data may not be as accurate as desired. The interview is best utilized with smaller numbers of employees. It is costly but the benefits derived from accurate data can offset the costs of the interview. Once the initial data is obtained and plugged into the system, procedures for an annual overall update and updates on an "as needed" basis should be established. The annual review could consist of an organization-wide questionnaire update while brief update forms may be enclosed in monthly payroll envelopes to pick up rapid changes in a volatile organization.

If the organization is large, complex, and volatile, a computerized inventory system will probably be necessary to provide timely retrieval. The costs for computerized system are greater; however, they do 1) provide for immediate access, 2) have the ability to perform frequent and broad searches, and 3) generate data for turnover, pomotion, and other manpower planning studies. For smaller, less complex, and more stable organizations, a manual system can be adequate. The data base will not be as large and complex; the number of searches will be less; and the costs of the computerized system would more than likely be greater than the benefits derived.

Certain benefits can be derived from the use of a skills inventory system. Initially, it can be used as the basis of long-range personnel planning and development. It can assist planners in locating staffing imbalances which contribute to organization-wide personnel problems. Skills inventories can also be used for internal recruiting, which can save costs, improve morale, and identify training needs.

There are certain problems which can arise with a skills inventory system. First, requests for information may not be valid. Controls must be established to ensure that managers do not use the system to "pirate away" employees or make requests for information simply because "it would be nice to know." (Glueck, 1974, p. 134) A second problem is that the kinds of effective retrieval may be limited. Output regarding technical specialities will match requests to a greater degree than output of a general nature (e.g., managerial) for the latter are difficult to describe and categorize. Third, even if the system should identify the desired individuals, there may be a problem in getting them released from their present jobs. Top-management should endorse a strong transfer policy and establish guidelines to assist in dealing with such roadblocks. Fifth, some managers will hesitate in using the system because they would rather base their selections only on people they know.

4. Forecasting Unit Demand for Employees. Unit demand analysis can be described as the "bottom up" approach to manpower planning. Each individual organizational unit or department is analyzed on a person-by-person and job-by-job basis. This system ties in the job and its incumbent. Both the immediate and future job requirements and the specific skills of the individual are analyzed. This process will normally utilize manning tables which will contain the name and number of jobs in the unit and the number of incumbents for each category. The table is then analyzed in terms of the number and skills of present personnel available from the skills inventory system. The calculation of net employment needs is reached through an analysis of the manning table in conjunction with numerical projections on expected losses (retirement, promotion, etc.) and growth needs (new or expanded products or services). Since this approach is both time consuming and costly, it is best utilized for higher level and key positions.

5. Planning to meet manpower requirements. The requirements of certain jobs and the composition of the general labor pool may be such that an external supply of qualified employees may not be readily available. In such cases, the organization must take measures to: (1) develop the capabilities of its current employees to meet its special needs using the procedure of job design; (2) engage in special recruitment efforts in the external labor pool for the hard-to-fill positions; or (3) enhance the status normally given to hard-to-fill positions to attract more applicants from both the internal and external labor supply.

Job design is concerned with the basic factors of the job; that is, what the tasks are, the pattern of the tasks, time spent performing the tasks, the variety of tasks, etc. Job design attempts to reduce each position to its basics: content, methods of performance, and relationship to other positions. Once the skeleton is built and understood the flesh may be added. Three approaches may be considered to flesh out the skeleton; namely, job rotation, job enlargement, and job enrichment.

Job rotation is the simplest approach. In this approach the employee has the job to which he or she is normally assigned. At certain intervals he or she will then be rotated to a somewhat similar (skeleton) position, but one that also offers some new responsiblities and/or duties (flesh). Job rotation systems generally are structured within a unit; that is, the employee is rotated to jobs, within his or her own organizational unit, that are most likely to have a similar skeleton. Job rotation is felt to increase the individual's job knowledge and productivity while decreasing boredom.

Job enlargement is the second approach to job design. This involves increasing the span of duties and responsibilities of the basic position. In this manner more interesting and challenging work can be brought into the position, and the individual's skills can be gradually increased.

Job enrichment will also make the job more meaningful while at the same time increasing the employee's range of skills. The thrust of this approach is to increase the discretion given to the incumbents in organizing and controlling their jobs.

Job design offers some promise to the manpower planner faced with a restricted labor pool. However, these are not guaranteed methods, and it must be recognized that they will not work in all cases. The success of job design often depends upon individual differences. Some employees are happy with what they are doing and do not wish to broaden their range of skills or responsibilities. Also, that area of skill development which you have identified may not be of interest to the employee. Additionally, some individuals welcome and function best with known routines. In such cases job design would more than likely lead to employee dissatisfaction and decreased productivity.

Another means to meet the manpower needs of an organization requires adding new employees to the existing internal work force. Just as with job design, it is still necessary to analyze each position into its basics of content, methods of performance, and the relationship to other positions. This information will be very important in conducting the selection process to identify the new employees. [The details of the selection process will be described in Module 2: Selection.]

A third approach to planning to meet manpower requirements is particularly relevant for occupations that are experiencing a shortage of available employees. This approach involves the status assignment to underpopulated occupations which may increase that occupation's numbers and may specifically increase your organization's attractiveness for such individuals. Occupations that may need such status are technicians and craftsmen, individuals who work with their hands, and new highly scientific jobs such as those that require extensive time and large amounts of money to become adequately trained.

STUDY QUESTIONS

2. What are the five basic steps that you would implement in order to analyze the manpower requirements and plan manpower programs for your organization?

3. Why is the statement of an organization's goals and objectives the only logical starting point for manpower planning?

4. Given the criteria for determining whether manpower forecasting should be the responsibility of a central agency or of decentralized units, select the area appropriate for your own organization and describe why they are appropriate.

5. Describe the following forecasting methods:

   a. Expert Estimate:

   b. Historical Comparison:

   c. Task Analytic:

   d. Sovereign Factors:

   e. Modeling:

6. What is the role of skills inventories in analyzing the supply of the work force?

7. What is meant by unit demand of employees?

8. Describe briefly three general methods for planning to meet manpower requirements.

C. A FINAL LOOK AT MANPOWER PLANNING

Before concluding this module, let us take one last look at manpower planning. Clearly, there is much more that can be said about manpower planning that we have not included in this module. Manpower planning is a difficult and complex task for an organization to undertake--one that poses the possibility of both risks and gains. We have outlined the basic steps involved in the manpower planning process and have briefly mentioned some techniques and considerations which apply to some of the steps. Now we would like to conclude by: 1) summarizing some of the principles that apply to manpower planning; 2) suggesting some of the cost/benefit indications in evaluating the success of manpower planning efforts; and 3) discussing some of the larger social issues to consider in manpower planning programs.

1. Principles of Manpower Planning. A number of principles may now be formulated which should help to summarize some important aspects of manpower planning.

a. Assessment of manpower needs can not adequately be performed in a vacuum. Government services must consider the needs of the private sector along with its own needs. The scope of the competition, the extent of its needs, and its ability to attract resources should be determined if public agencies are to compete effectively.

b. Manpower planning is not a precise art. However, economic trends and conditions may be adequately generalized and the labor pool may be sufficiently assessed to provide a "jumping-off" point.

c. Candidates in certain occupations may be in limited supply. There is generally a time lag between change and the educational system's ability to create processes to respond to new occupational demands.

d. Numbers should be adjusted according to certain factors. Even if it were possible to predict the exact number of individuals available in a certain occupation, we must allow for other factors, such as time off for training, training time necessary on the job, and less than a hundred percent effort by employees.

e. Job redesign should be considered when determining manpower needs. Training and job redesign may decrease the need for higher level and technical types of employees, which may be in short supply, and may help to redirect recruitment efforts to more highly populated occupations.

f. You should be aware of and promote the roles of the supervisor. Supervisors should be made aware of the fact that they can contribute to manpower planning by: 1) assessing the skills of present employees; 2) training employees in new skills or refining present skills; and 3) accepting the movement of employees for the betterment of the organization and the individual.

g. "The larger the organization's work force, the more likely are effective organizations to plan demand for labor formally and the more likely they are to plan it centrally at headquarters for the whole organization." (Glueck, 1974, p. 136)

h. "The more volatile the organization's environment, the more complex the products and services offered, and the more geographically dispersed the organization's members or subdivisions, the more likely are effective organizations to plan the demand for labor formally at each unit and to sum them at headquarters." (Glueck, 1974, p. 136).

i. "The larger the organization's work force, the more volatile the organization's environment, the more complex the products or services, and the more geographically dispersed the organization's members or subdivisions, the more likely are effective organizations to formally study the community and national labor supply." (Glueck, 1974, p. 136)

2. Cost/Benefit analysis of manpower planning. Performing cost/benefit analysis for evaluating the utility of manpower planning is a difficult task, and only a small percentage of employers have attempted such studies. This does not mean, however, that it will not prove a useful and effective tool to assist in manpower planning. Cost/benefit analysis requires that the estimated or actual costs of manpower planning be compared with estimated or actual benefits.

The cost side of cost/benefit analysis is the easier of the two to assess. It is not difficult to estimate the costs incurred in hiring manpower planners, the materials and computer time used, and the cost of line management participation. Benefits are more difficult to calculate. However, items such as reduced recruitment and training costs, decreased turnover in higher level positions, improved work environment, higher percentage of internal transfer or promotion, and a greater demand for or increased clientele satisfaction in the organization's product or services may be estimated.

3. Social issues in manpower planning. When structuring manpower programs the planner must be aware of governmental civil rights activity which may have an effect on the planning process. Such legislation may be viewed as an action by government to attempt to increase the rate of employment participation of certain groups.

United States Armed Forces Veterans are one group that should be addressed. Congress has provided specific reemployment for veterans. Also, preference systems have been established to make it easier for veterans to move into the Federal career service. Women and racial, religious, and ethnic minorities are generally found to be employed in low-skill, low-salary jobs. Access to higher skilled, more responsible and better paying jobs has historically been denied to them. There are philosophical and practical reasons why the planner should consider affirmative action when structuring the manpower program. As regards the former, a democratic society should not deny participation in employment on the basis of non-job related criteria. In reference to the latter, legislative fiat and the very real gaps in the labor pools argue for consideration of all qualified individuals.

The problem of the older employee has become more prevelant today, especially since most benefit plans are structured in such a manner that it costs more to employ an older worker. It should be remembered that aging studies (Gilmer, 1966) have shown that the work performance of older employees is at least as effective as the performance of younger ones. (Glueck, 1974, p. 120)

Handicapped workers number six and one-half million in the United States. Handicapped individuals have difficulty in finding employment because employers "believe" they can't do the job. When the handicapped worker's skills are matched to the job, two-thirds will produce at the same rate as able-bodied employees, twenty-four percent at higher levels, and only ten percent at lower levels. (Glueck, 1974, p. 119) Absenteeism and turnover are generally found to be lower for handicapped employees.

STUDY QUESTIONS

9. Once manpower needs are identified on the basis of analysis, what factors should be considered to adjust the figures more accurately?

10. List the factors that manpower planners could consider in performing cost/benefit analyses of manpower planning programs.

11. Describe the affects of Affirmative Action on manpower planning and list the areas of discrimination of which planners should be aware.

D. OPTIONAL READING

The following reading provides an expanded view of the strategies of job design and job enrichments which were discussed earlier in this Module. This reading is not required but you should find it to be a thorough and informative discussion of the topic. The article is:

- "Is Job Enrichment Just a Fad?" by J. Richard Hackman. (Published in Harvard Business Review, Volume 53, Number 5, September-October 1975, pp. 129-138.)

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Glueck, William. Personnel: A Diagnostic Approach. Dallas, Texas: Business Publications Inc., 1974.

Stahl, Gleen. Public Personnel Administration. New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1971.

Stainer, George A. Top Management Planning. New York: Macmillan Publishing Co., Inc., 1969.

ASSIGNMENT

The following question should be answered as completely as possible on separate paper. Two copies of your responses should be mailed to the instructor. One copy will be returned to you with the instructor's comments and the other will be retained as part of your course record.

Investigate the practice of manpower planning in one (1) public organization or agency.

- *Explain their reasons why they either have or do not have a manpower planning program.*
- *If they have a manpower planning program, describe its structure, strengths, and limitations. Determine, if in your opinion, the organization needs the planning program.*
- *If the organization does not have a manpower planning program, determine if, in your opinion, they need one. Explain your recommendation.*

STUDY QUESTIONS

Answer Key

1. a. Federal and state legislation requires it.
   b. Unions demand that attention and concern be devoted to the employees.
   c. The labor pool has changed, giving rise to more skilled employees, making manpower a more valuable resource.
   d. The variety of individual and "human" needs of employees is recognized as important concerns of management.
   e. The contribution of "satisfied" employees is seen as being in the best interest of the organization.
   f. Effective management of employees contributes to the organization's attainment of its goals and objectives.

2. a. Identify organizational goals and objectives.
   b. Analyze the gross human resources needed to meet those goals and objectives.
   c. Assess the manpower on hand and compare that to the gross manpower requirement.
   d. Identify the net manpower requirements.
   e. Formulate needed manpower programs.

3. The only rational beginning of the planning process is to determine the organization's mission and interests for continued growth. That determination provides the "target" and context within which to plan. Without clearly identified goals and statements, there can be no basis for assessing present and, especially, future needs for manpower.

4. If you selected the central agency, your organization should be either very small and uncomplicated or large but stable and not complex. If you selected decentralized units, your organization should be volatile, complex and/or dispersed.

5. a. Expert Estimate: Estimation based upon the knowledge of the institution and systems operating within the institution and experience. It is the simplest approach and requires only the use of broad data. Only averages are required.
   b. Historical comparison: New systems are divided into subsystems, and they are compared to data from known systems. It assumes the past is a good predictor of the future. It may apply generally to stable organizations and stable time periods, but it is not responsive to change.
   c. Task Analytic: The estimate is based upon analysis of system requirements, establishment of vision profiles, ground equipment functions, definitions of specific tasks, and a clustering of tasks. It is a very time-consuming and costly method, generally so much so that is is used only when forecasting top-management needs.
   d. Sovereign factors: The estimate is based upon one or more factors which correlate highly with the items being estimated. It is a very technical and complex method and generally requires the use of evaluators skilled in technical areas. It also requires the use of electronic data processing equipment that may not be available to the organization.

e. Modeling: The estimate is based upon decision models. It is also a very technical and complex method and generally requires the use of evaluators skilled in technical areas. It requires the use of electronic data processing equipment that may not be available to the organization.

6. Skills inventories are useful to organizations in detailing and keeping track of its internal human resource capabilities. All employees backgrounds and skills are entered into the skills inventory system. The system is organized so that the information can be retrieved in a number of ways to identify the human resources needed to do new jobs or fill vacancies or to prepare reports on projected resource development. The organizations work force can be carefully monitored in this way.

7. Unit demand refers to the fourth step of the manpower planning process. Sometimes described as the "bottom up" approach to planning, it occurs at the smaller, departmental levels of an organization. This approach requires that each unit of the organization carefully analyze its work on a job-by-job and person-by-person basis. Then the unit makes some informed estimates of short-and-long-range manpower needs with the assistance of manning tables and judgements of retirement, transfer, and promotion possibilities of the existing work force.

8. a. Job design is currently a very popular way in which organizations may plan to meet their present and future manpower needs. It specifically focuses on developing the organization's internal manpower resources. The aim of job design is to provide training and experience to its employees to expand their present capabilities. These variations of job design include job rotation, job enlargement, and job enrichment.
   b. Even with job design programs, organizations must plan to add new employees from the external labor market. This is accomplished by the selection process. It does have one feature in common with job design and that is the need to carefully describe the job essentials of content, methods of performance, and, relationship to other positions.
   c. Another approach to planning to meet manpower requirements should be viewed as complementary to the preceding two approaches. This method includes the assignment of status to occupations with a shortage of available manpower. The intention of this approach is to try to attract additional prospective employees to this occupation to ease the manpower shortage.

9. a. Time-off needed for training.
   b. On-the-job training time.
   c. Employee effort expected to be less than 100 percent.

10. a. Cost: hiring, material, computer time, employee time.
    b. Benefits: reduced recruitment and training costs, decreased turnover, percentage of transfers or promotions, increase in use of or satisfaction with products or services.

11. a. Manpower planning provides a good opportunity for organizations to systematically make provisions to correct the inequities of their past employment practices. Within the context of manpower planning, organizations should be able to provide evidence of their intent and

plans to meet Affirmative Action requirements. Affirmative Action, requirements, therefore, provide an addition legal incentive for organizations to develop clear manpower planning programs.

b. Areas of employment discrimination of which manpower planning should be aware include: armed forces veterans, women, racial minorities, religious minorities, ethnic minorities, older employees, and handicapped workers.

PA 848
MANAGEMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCES

MODULE 2:
SELECTION

PREPARED
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UNIVERSITY EXTERNAL STUDIES PROGRAM

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MODULE 2: SELECTION

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MODULE 2: SELECTION

KEY TERMS AND CONCEPTS

- Merit System
- Patronage System
- Recruitment
- Announcement
- Application
- Reference Check
- Examination
- Selection
- Induction
- Probation
- Rule of Three

INTRODUCTION

Manpower planning, which determines personnel requirements, leads to recruitment and selection. Getting the right people into the right jobs is the cornerstone of the personnel function. Some of the needed new talent can come from within an agency through promotions, transfers or training, but a major portion of the organization's human talent must be obtained from sources outside of government. The recruitment and placement process, the topic of this module, deals with methods for meeting manpower needs primarily from external sources.

The effective delivery of public goods and services is determined by the quality of government personnel. Civil servants engage in almost every occupation found in the private sector. The government employs doctors, engineers, sociologists, historians, aerial photographers, social workers, and teachers. People with these diverse talents must be found and encouraged to seek government employment. In addition, the government is virtually the exclusive employer of people whose main quality is their understanding and endorsement of a particular policy perspective and their loyalty to a particular elected official.

The personnel system in the federal government is more highly developed than those in states and cities. The United States Civil Service Commission, expecially under the Intergovernmental Personnel Act, is charged with upgrading the personnel systems in states and local government. Most federal employees, however, are located outside of Washington, D.C.

The federal personnel system goes back to the enactment of the Civil Service Act of 1883 which attempted to remove the public service from political influence. That process of removing the public service from political influence is in an advanced stage; most public jobs in the federal government and an increasing number in states and cities are today under what is called a classified or career service in which selection and promotion are based on competitive examinations. We call this a Merit System, by which is meant that a person's worth to the organization, the merit of his or her attributes and capacities, is the governing factor in selection, assignment, recognition, advancement, and retention. In recent years, as we shall see below, this idea of merit has itself been called into question.

In the public workforce there are four distinguishable groupings of personnel operating side by side, each with its own distinct values and allegiances: 1) the patronage system, where selection is based on a combination of competences and political loyalty; 2) a unionized system, where many personnel actions are determined through labor-management negotiations; 3) the professional service where recruitment is based largely on previous education and experience; and 4) the classified merit system where entry and advancement are based upon an examination process.

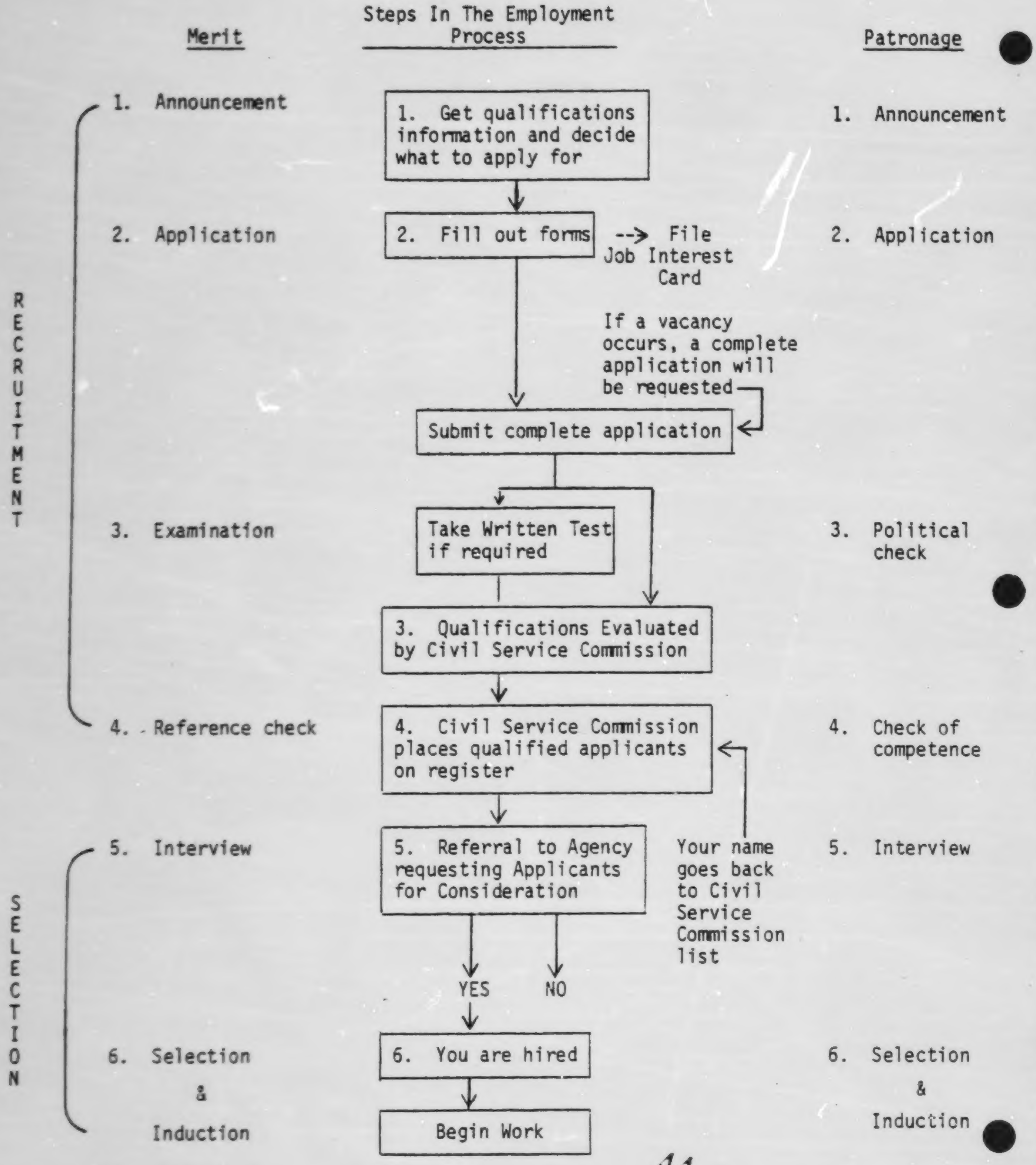
In this module our attention will focus primarily on recruitment and placement within a merit system. Such a system has at least these qualities:

- adequate publicity about job openings
- genuine opportunity for interested citizens to apply
- realistic and fairly applied standards
- the absence of inappropriate discrimination
- ranking based on relevant qualifications
- public knowledge of the results of the process

The recruitment and placement process contains several components: 1) Announcing merit and patronage jobs, 2) application, 3) reference checks,

4) examination, 5) interviewing, 6) selection and induction. To simplify our presentation the first four steps, which are largely performed by personnel specialists, will be taken up under the topic of Recruitment. The last two functions, usually performed in the operating or line departments, will be discussed under the heading of Placement. A final section of the module will take up the Administration of the Recruitment and Selection Process.

Recruitment in the public sector is largely handled by a centralized personnel agency, usually called a civil service commission. Selection takes place in the actual departments or agencies where the work is to be performed. This functional division distinguishes the public from the private sector the latter tends to handle both recruitment and selection within a personnel department attached to an operating unit. The diagram below reviews the recruitment and placement process, and contrasts each step as it would occur under merit and patronage systems.


Merit
Steps In The Employment Process
Patronage
RECRUITMENT
1. Announcement
1. Get qualifications information and decide what to apply for
1. Announcement
2. Application
2. Fill out forms
--> File Job Interest Card
2. Application
If a vacancy occurs, a complete application will be requested
Submit complete application
3. Examination
Take Written Test if required
3. Political check
3. Qualifications Evaluated by Civil Service Commission
4. Reference check
4. Civil Service Commission places qualified applicants on register
4. Check of competence
SELECTION
5. Interview
5. Referral to Agency requesting Applicants for Consideration
Your name goes back to Civil Service Commission list
5. Interview
YES
NO
6. Selection & Induction
6. You are hired
6. Selection & Induction
Begin Work

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LEARNING OBJECTIVES

When you have completed the module readings, study questions, and the assignment, you should be able to:

1. Distinguish between merit and patronage employment systems.
2. Describe the problems that must be overcome to accomplish successful recruitment and selection.
3. Explain the stresses confronting the merit system.
4. Complete a Personal Qualification Statement (SF 171).
5. Describe the relationship between an application (or Personal Qualifications Statement) and reference checks.
6. Conduct or role play an interview and then analyze it and make recommendations for its improvement.

OVERVIEW

Objectives	Tasks	Resources	Evaluation
1. Distinguish between merit and patronage employment systems.	Study Question 2	Module Reading A	Self
2. Describe the problems that must be overcome to accomplish successful recruitment and selection.	Study Questions 1,3,8,9,10,11	Module Readings A,B	Self
3. Explain the stresses confronting the merit system from the perspective of recruitment and selection.	Study Questions 12,13	Module Reading C	Self
4. Complete a Personal Qualifications Statement (SF 171).	Study Questions 4,5 Module Assignment Option 1	Module Reading A Module Reading A	Self Instructor Feedback
5. Describe the relationship between an application (or Personal Qualifications Statement) and reference checks.	Study Questions 6,7	Module Reading A	Self
6. Conduct or role play an interview and then analyze it and make recommendations for its improvement.	Study Questions 9,10 Module Assignment Option 2	Module Reading B Module Reading B	Self Instructor Feedback

A. THE RECRUITMENT PROCESS

Since there is considerable unemployment and an abundant supply of college graduates who are aggressively seeking employment, you might think that recruitment would be no problem for the public service at this time. The government has become a desirable employer with reasonably competitive salaries, good fringe benefits, and an improving reputation as a desirable work setting in which to pursue a career. Yet the recruitment of desirable candidates for public jobs has become increasingly difficult.

One set of reasons public agencies have problems arise from the competition for desirable candidates. Business, industry, education, and non-profit organizations aggressively seek people to meet their needs. Competition is particularly keen for occupations like engineering and accounting where a highly technical preparation is required. In the federal and state governments, the pressures to curtail the size of the work force have prompted a much more intensive search to make the best possible selection for the limited number of jobs that can be filled.

A second set of reasons why the recruitment process has become more difficult arises from the increased demand for opportunities by minorities and women--groups which have traditionally been excluded from the better paying jobs in government. Since the passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and its subsequent Amendments, public employers (at all levels) have been forced to reexamine their recruitment and placement processes to eliminate practices that are discriminatory. (We will have more to say about this in Module 3).

The recruitment process really begins with a precise determination of the skills that are to be sought for specific job situations and the determination of how many individuals will be needed. (See Module 1, Manpower Planning.) After this assessment, which usually results in a requisition for a job being sent to a civil service commission, the recruitment process begins.

The sources used for locating competent personnel are: 1) close scrutiny of the talent available in the internal work force through transfers, promotions, rehirings, and in-service training, and 2) the probing of external sources: walk-ins, waiting lists, private and public employment agencies, advertisements, and recruitment trips. The advantages of internal recruitment are that better evaluations can be made of candidates and in general it contributes to positive employee morale. The disadvantages are the tendency toward in-breeding, loss of the opportunity to bring in people with fresh ideas, and new capabilities.

Issuing announcements, as well as seeking to recruit the politically loyal, presents a variety of problems. First there are inherited restrictions which limit the search. For most states and local government there is a residency requirement. Even for the so-called Departmental Services at Headquarters in Washington, D.C., there is a requirement for hirings to reflect the distribution of the population of the states. In all levels of government, there is generally some means for waiving this requirement, although Congressional delegations, anxious to be able to place their proportion of constituents, resist this trend. Local governments, increasingly, are making it difficult for suburban residents to live under and pay their taxes to suburban governments while working for the central city.

Probably the most controversial restriction on open recruitment is Veteran's Preference, the policy that out of a sense of gratitude those who served in the military--and certain of their close relatives--will automatically receive a bonus of 5 points (10 if they have a service-connected disability) on their examination scores. This policy has been recently challenged as discriminatory against women, who participate in the military to a lesser extent than men. The issue is currently being litigated, and, given that the Vietnam War was an unpopular war, it is possible that this policy will be changed.

Positive recruitment campaigns try to move aggressively seek out qualified applicants and to insure that the government is getting a chance to examine the right poeple for specific jobs. Civil service commissions pursue this objective with imperfect knowledge of what the job will be, with often drastically limited resources for conducting searches, and with a body of merit doctrine that puts more emphasis on competition in a career-long service than upon providing maximum opportunity for those groups for which government is the main source of employment. If recruitment is successful it yields a field of applicants who meet minimum requirements for applying to take an examination that is designed to differentiate among those who are qualified.

Although this module will focus primarily on recruitment and selection in the merit system (as mentioned in the Module Introduction), a brief review of the reasons for recruitment under patronage systems should help keep the discussions in the following sections in perspective. Recruiting for patronage possitions provides a parallel approach to public jobs. Patronage jobs are of two types: high level political appointments to executive positions, and jobs at the lowest pay and status level of government. Appointments based upon political considerations have a firm base in democratic government, such as upper level department and agency heads, board and commission members, and officials in strategic policy-making slots who must both understand the policies of the elected executives and have a commitment to their implementation. Thus, political appointments should first be seen as devices for putting into effect the policy choices in elections. Presidents, Governors, County Supervisors, and Mayors make these appointments.

Political appointments made for reasons of policy continuity received specific legitimization during the Eisenhower Administration. This Republican Administration took office in 1952 following 20 years of unbroken Democratic Party rule. In order for President Eisenhower to be able to carry out his electoral mandate, he felt the need to put his own people into key policy positions. To accomplish this, a separate listing, called Schedule C, was devised to contain the names of individuals who might be appointed both because of their competence to do the job and their commitment to the President's policy point of view. Schedule C selections made by President Carter when he took office in 1977 numbered some 7,000 positions.

Political appointments to lower level jobs have been resisted because of a history of abuse in what has been labeled "the spoils system." Public Administration literature puts great emphasis on the need to develop a professional public service rather than one tied to political organizations, citing past abuses by "machine politics." At the federal level, this type of political appointment for lower level positions has almost entirely been eliminated. In state government less acceptance of this principle has occurred; for example, in the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania 30 to 40 percent of the jobs are not in a merit system but are handled through the Governor's Patronage Secretary. At the local levels of government the picture is also mixed. Large cities are generally moving toward merit systems, but rural areas and urban counties still maintain a predominately patronage approach.

The arguments for and against patronage systems persist. There is little correlation between merit systems and quality work forces. Some jurisdictions have been able to assemble a quality work force using patronage.

and some merit systems have shown a lack of responsiveness to electoral mandates. The preponderant opinion is that the public service should be made up of competent people who are at the same time politically responsive, which suggests some combination of merit and patronage ideas.

1. Announcements

The announcement of position vacancies occurs in two parallel ways, one related to the merit system and a second related to patronage-based employment. Civil service commissions traditionally have taken a passive approach to recruitment for merit positions. The assumption was that there were adequate candidates who would apply once a job was announced. Often the career service announcement* was highly formal, written in "official English," and distributed to such obscure places as bulletin boards of Post Offices. There was little concern to seek out the most qualified person for the job, as a private sector firm would tend to do.

Increasingly these practices have given way to what is called "positive recruitment" in which the commissions and patronage offers aggressively seek out qualified candidates. A typical government announcement, for example, contains the following information prepared in an attractive brochure:

- the chance that the applicant would have of getting the job.
- what the department or agency is seeking in terms of specific knowledge and skills needed to perform the job.
- the status and salary level for an entry position and for more advanced assignments.
- specific instructions on how to apply for the job.
- the suggestion that the government is a good place to seek a career.

The sample that follows is currently in use by a state government. Subsequent pages of the announcement provided more detail on the job.

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*The term announcement covers both printed notices of career positions and the communication within the political party structure about jobs.

Announcement No. 1-77

Examinations

for

ADMINISTRATIVE POSITIONS

Examination Number	Job Code and Title		Salary Range
1.	0801 -	Government Career Trainee	$10,367 - $13,477
2.	0802A -	Public Administration Trainee (A-Administration)	$10,367 - $13,477
3.	0802B -	Public Administration Trainee (B-Finance)	$10,367 - $13,477
4.	0802C -	Public Administration Trainee (C-Management Methods)	$10,367 - $13,477
5.	0802D -	Public Administration Trainee (D-Personnel)	$10,367 - $13,477

NATURE OF WORK - LOCATION - REQUIREMENTS

Government Career Trainee and Public Administration Trainee (Most State Agencies)
These are training positions in public administration and related fields providing entry into State government at the professional or technical level.

Trainees are given beginning level work as part of a one-year training program in one of several fields, a few of which are: budgeting, management methods, computer science, general administration, research and statistics, employment security, personnel management and fiscal management. Contingent on the needs of the agencies, candidates are offered choices in determining agencies or types of work. After successfully completing a one-year training program, the employe is promoted to a professional position in the field in which the employe was trained.

Most of these training positions exist in the central administrative offices of the State agencies in Harrisburg.

Requirements
Government Career Trainee - A bachelor's degree awarded by an accredited college or university.

Public Administration Trainee (A-Administration) (B-Finance) (C-Management Methods) (D-Personnel) - Four years of experience in the appropriate area of specialization; OR any equivalent combination of experience and training.

Note: Applicants hoping to qualify for Public Administration Trainee on the basis of college training alone must show that they have had a minimum of 15 semester hours credit in an area appropriate to the specialty requested.

In addition to the traditional posting of announcements, civil service commissions now advertise in newspapers and professional journals. They place their job needs with public and private employment agencies, and they send out recruitment teams, particularly to schools and colleges. Beyond this, the government has come to recognize the need for on-going institutional advertising to create a climate favorable to working for government.

Some other dimension of positive recruiting in current approaches to announcing jobs are:

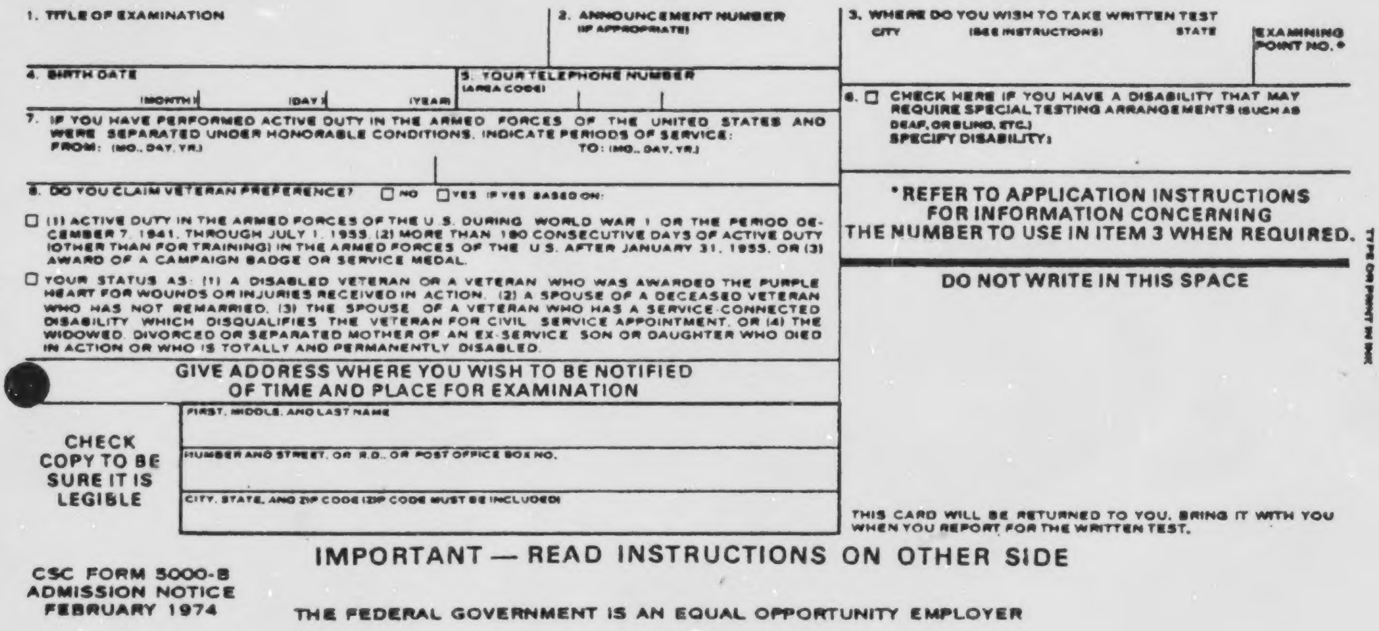
- Intensive cultivation of the news media to cover public job opportunities, usually on a "public service" basis.
- Extensive mailings to labor unions, vocational counseling offices, professional societies, and special interest groups.
- Inviting individuals in various stages of their academic preparation to visit or serve internships in public agencies.
- Preparation of background articles about the work of the agency and the attractive aspects of particular job assignments.
- Personal letters to college and high school seniors outlining opportunities and giving instructions for making applications.
- Conducting training sessions designed to prepare potential applicants for successful passage of civil service examinations.

Many of these approaches are of an institutional nature and only indirectly related to a specific job announcement. Yet the importance of this broad and continuing approach cannot be over-emphasized. The changing employment market and increasing demands on government make the continuous cultivation of sources absolutely necessary. It should be kept in mind that an announcement, beyond informing an applicant about a job, also seeks to sell promising applicants on the desirability of government careers. When a federal agency has a position to fill, the hiring official of that agency asks the Civil Service Commission for names of persons who are "eligible for that kind of job." All of the applications on file that seem to be qualified for this position are retrieved and ranked on a point system against a job description containing a list of knowledges, skills, or abilities the agency considers essential for acceptable performance of the job. Note that the rating given depends upon the requested job, thus a different job would produce a different numerical rating.

2. Application

The application form is an important screening and qualification document which provides the applicant the opportunity to present him- or herself in an attractive manner and also gives the prospective employer clues about the applicant. Many people lose jobs before they get them by submitting deficient application forms. Applicants who do a good job on the application form present a positive image greatly enhance their chances of getting a job.

In the public sector the application for employment serves as a device for obtaining permission to take an examination. (An application is made to be examined not only for entry into government but also to be examined for promotion from one job to another.) The first step in seeking a federal job is taken by filling out the form reproduced below.



1. TITLE OF EXAMINATION

2. ANNOUNCEMENT NUMBER (IF APPROPRIATE)

3. WHERE DO YOU WISH TO TAKE WRITTEN TEST
CITY (SEE INSTRUCTIONS) STATE
EXAMINING POINT NO.*

4. BIRTH DATE
(MONTH) (DAY) (YEAR)

5. YOUR TELEPHONE NUMBER
(AREA CODE)

6. ☐ CHECK HERE IF YOU HAVE A DISABILITY THAT MAY REQUIRE SPECIAL TESTING ARRANGEMENTS (SUCH AS DEAF, OR BLIND, ETC.)
SPECIFY DISABILITY:

7. IF YOU HAVE PERFORMED ACTIVE DUTY IN THE ARMED FORCES OF THE UNITED STATES AND WERE SEPARATED UNDER HONORABLE CONDITIONS, INDICATE PERIODS OF SERVICE:
FROM: (MO., DAY, YR.) TO: (MO., DAY, YR.)

8. DO YOU CLAIM VETERAN PREFERENCE? ☐ NO ☐ YES IF YES BASED ON:

☐ (1) ACTIVE DUTY IN THE ARMED FORCES OF THE U.S. DURING WORLD WAR I OR THE PERIOD DECEMBER 7, 1941, THROUGH JULY 1, 1955, (2) MORE THAN 180 CONSECUTIVE DAYS OF ACTIVE DUTY (OTHER THAN FOR TRAINING) IN THE ARMED FORCES OF THE U.S. AFTER JANUARY 31, 1955, OR (3) AWARD OF A CAMPAIGN BADGE OR SERVICE MEDAL.

☐ YOUR STATUS AS: (1) A DISABLED VETERAN OR A VETERAN WHO WAS AWARDED THE PURPLE HEART FOR WOUNDS OR INJURIES RECEIVED IN ACTION, (2) A SPOUSE OF A DECEASED VETERAN WHO HAS NOT REMARRIED, (3) THE SPOUSE OF A VETERAN WHO HAS A SERVICE-CONNECTED DISABILITY WHICH DISQUALIFIES THE VETERAN FOR CIVIL SERVICE APPOINTMENT, OR (4) THE WIDOWED, DIVORCED OR SEPARATED MOTHER OF AN EX-SERVICE SON OR DAUGHTER WHO DIED IN ACTION OR WHO IS TOTALLY AND PERMANENTLY DISABLED.

*REFER TO APPLICATION INSTRUCTIONS FOR INFORMATION CONCERNING THE NUMBER TO USE IN ITEM 3 WHEN REQUIRED.

DO NOT WRITE IN THIS SPACE

TYPE OR PRINT IN INK

GIVE ADDRESS WHERE YOU WISH TO BE NOTIFIED OF TIME AND PLACE FOR EXAMINATION

CHECK COPY TO BE SURE IT IS LEGIBLE

FIRST, MIDDLE, AND LAST NAME

NUMBER AND STREET, OR R.D., OR POST OFFICE BOX NO.

CITY, STATE, AND ZIP CODE (ZIP CODE MUST BE INCLUDED)

THIS CARD WILL BE RETURNED TO YOU. BRING IT WITH YOU WHEN YOU REPORT FOR THE WRITTEN TEST.

IMPORTANT — READ INSTRUCTIONS ON OTHER SIDE

CSC FORM 5000-B
ADMISSION NOTICE
FEBRUARY 1974

THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT IS AN EQUAL OPPORTUNITY EMPLOYER

When there is a vacancy and an examination has been scheduled the applicant is invited to take a written Civil Service test. For liberal arts graduates seeking to enter the Federal government at GS 5 or 7 level positions, the Professional and Administrative Career Examination (PACE) is required. A copy of the PACE announcement is reproduced on pages 2.14 and 2.15.

The PACE examination takes 4½ hours to complete. It tests the applicants' reasoning ability, language skills, and general knowledge. It is called an assembled examination because it is a written test given to assembled applicants.

When the vacancy is at the middle levels (GS 9-11-13), the Personal Qualifications Statement, Standard Form 171 (SF-171) is used. The SF-171 is both an application and an examination. It is an examination because

(text continued on p. XIII.2.16)

U.S. Civil Service Commission

Professional and Administrative Career Examination

Opportunities
in the Federal
Government

Announcement
No. 429
September 1976

The Federal Government needs people with potential for advancement into responsible administrative and professional jobs. If you have a college degree or equivalent experience, this examination offers you the opportunity to compete for a wide variety of entry-level (GS-5 and 7) jobs in Federal agencies across the country.

To be eligible for employment consideration under this examination you must meet the experience and/or education requirements outlined below and score sufficiently high on a written test designed to measure abilities required for the jobs covered by this examination.

The written test session requires approximately 4½ hours. About 6 weeks after you take the written test, you will receive your ratings and an explanation of how they will be used. The ratings will be based upon your scores on the written test and an evaluation of your experience and education. Ratings in the high 90s are generally required for job consideration.

EXPERIENCE AND EDUCATION REQUIREMENTS

1. **For grade GS-5 positions:** A bachelor's degree, or 3 years of responsible experience; or an equivalent combination of education and experience.
2. **For grade GS-7 positions; one of the following:**
   - a. A bachelor's degree plus one year of graduate study; or an LL.B. or J.D. degree from a recognized law school; or 4 years of responsible experience; or an equivalent combination of education and experience.
   - b. A bachelor's degree, an earned rating of 90 or above in the written test, plus either a 2.90 grade-point average on a 4.00 scale in all undergraduate courses, or rank in the upper third of your class, or membership in a national honorary scholastic society (other than freshman societies) recognized by the Association of College Honor Societies.

Responsible Experience is professional, administrative, or other experience which provides evidence of an ability to perform the duties of positions filled through this examination. Experience of a routine clerical nature is not qualifying for this examination.

Equivalent Combination. One academic year of full-time undergraduate study (30 semester hours credit or 45 quarter hours credit) is equivalent to 9 months of responsible experience.

OTHER RATING PROVISIONS

Outstanding Scholars. If your academic record meets one of the following, you may receive additional credit toward your numerical rating: a 3.50 grade-point average on a 4.00 scale for all undergraduate courses completed toward a baccalaureate degree; or standing in the upper 10 percent of your graduating class or of a major university subdivision, such as the College of Liberal Arts.

Ten-point Veteran Preference. Additional points may be granted to the mothers, widows or widowers and wives or husbands of disabled or deceased veterans. If you think you may be eligible, submit a Standard Form 15, with proof required therein, along with the regular application forms at the time of the written test.

Class standing or grade-point average should be based on all courses which have been completed at the time of application. All candidates qualifying as Outstanding Scholars or for GS-7 on the basis of class standing or grade-point average will be required to submit evidence at the time of appointment that the required average or standing was maintained through the senior year.

HOW TO APPLY

The written test is given on a limited basis. See the attached supplement for information on application procedures, test dates and application cutoff dates. If a supplement is not attached, a copy can be obtained from your nearest U.S. Civil Service Commission Federal Job Information Center. FJICs are usually listed in the white pages of local telephone directories under "U.S. Government". Should your directory not contain such a listing, please call 800-555-1212 to obtain the toll-free number of a Federal Job Information Center in your state.

Applications will be accepted from students who expect to complete, within 9 months, courses which would permit them to meet the requirements of this examination.

All qualified applicants will receive consideration for appointment without regard to race, religion, color, national origin, sex, political affiliations, or any other nonmerit factor.

JOBS FILLED THROUGH THIS EXAMINATION

Over 90 percent of the jobs filled through this examination are in the occupational categories listed below. All offer good opportunities for promotion and preparation for other positions, depending upon the quality and effectiveness of your performance.

Regulation/Compliance
- —Customs Inspectors
- —Revenue Officers
- —Immigration Inspectors
- —Import Specialists
- —Financial Institution Examiners
- —Tax Technicians

Administration/Management Support
- —Computer Specialists
- —Personnel Specialists
- —Management Analysis
- —Contract and Procurement Specialists
- —Budget Specialists

Claims and Benefits Examining
- —Social Insurance Claims Examiners
- —Veterans Claims Examiners
- —Passport and Visa Examiners

Investigations/Law Enforcement
- —Special Agents (Drug Enforcement)
- —Criminal Investigators
- —General Investigators

Social Services
- —Social Insurance Representatives
- —Contact Representatives

Other Positions
- —Writers and Editors
- —Economists. Special requirements: A bachelor's degree with at least 21 semester hours (32 quarter hours) in economics and 3 semester hours (5 quarter hours) in statistics, accounting, or calculus.

For specific information concerning the duties and responsibilities of these positions please refer to the Federal Career Directory, which is available for review at U.S. Civil Service Commission and in college placement offices.

OCCUPATIONS NOT COVERED BY THIS EXAMINATION

Many occupations at the GS-5 and GS-7 levels are covered under other announcements. For more information about these positions, contact the nearest Federal job information center:

Accountant, Architect, Biologist, Engineer, Guidance Counselor, Health Scientist, Illustrator, Graphic Designer, Librarian, Mathematician, Statistician, Nurse, Physical Scientist, Recreational Specialist, Teacher, Trades and Labor (Blue Collar) positions.

GOVERNMENT AGENCIES NOT COVERED BY THIS EXAMINATION

The United States Civil Service Commission does not accept applications for employment with the Government agencies listed below, each of which has a separate system for hiring personnel. These agencies should be contacted directly for information about employment opportunities:

Energy Research and Development Administration, Central Intelligence Agency, Federal Bureau of Investigation, National Security Agency, Department of State, United States Postal Service.

EMPLOYMENT OUTLOOK

Competition for Federal employment on this examination is extremely keen, particularly for positions in Washington, D.C.

Because of the limited number of positions in Alaska, Hawaii, Guam, and Puerto Rico (including the Virgin Islands), residents of these areas may receive first consideration for employment in these locations.

For additional information about Federal employment, see Civil Service Commission Pamphlet BRE-37, "Working for the U.S.A.", available at all Federal job information centers.

U.S. CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION AREA OFFICES

	Geographical Area Covered
Atlanta Area Office U.S. Civil Service Commission Federal Office Building 275 Peachtree Street, N.E. Atlanta, Georgia 30303	Alabama; Florida; Georgia, Kentucky (except Boyd, Henderson, Boone, Campbell, and Kenton Counties); Mississippi; North Carolina; South Carolina; Tennessee; Crittenden County, Arkansas; Floyd and Clark Counties, Indiana.
Boston Area Office U.S. Civil Service Commission 3 Center Plaza Boston, Massachusetts 02108	Connecticut; Maine; Massachusetts; New Hampshire; Rhode Island; Vermont.
Chicago Area Office E. M. Dirksen Bldg., Room 1322 219 So. Dearborn Street Chicago, Illinois 60604	Illinois (except Madison and St. Clair Counties); Indiana (except Clark and Floyd Counties); Scott County, Iowa; Michigan; Minnesota (except Clay County); Ohio (except Belmont, Jefferson and Lawrence Counties); Wisconsin; Henderson, Boone, Campbell, and Kenton Counties, Kentucky.
Dallas Area Office U.S. Civil Service Commission 1100 Commerce Street, 6th Floor Dallas, Texas 75202	Arkansas (except Crittenden County); Louisiana; New Mexico; Oklahoma; Texas.
Denver Area Office U.S. Civil Service Commission U.S. Post Office Building 18th and Stout Streets Denver, Colorado 80202	Colorado; Montana; North Dakota; South Dakota; Utah; Wyoming; Clay County, Minnesota.
Honolulu Area Office U.S. Civil Service Commission 1000 Bishop Street Honolulu, Hawaii 96813	Hawaii, Guam, Pacific Ocean Area.
New York Area Office U.S. Civil Service Commission 26 Federal Plaza New York, New York 10007	New York; New Jersey (except Camden County).
Philadelphia Area Office U.S. Civil Service Commission William J. Green, Jr. Federal Bldg. 600 Arch Street Philadelphia, Pennsylvania 19106	Delaware; Maryland (except Prince Georges, Charles, and Montgomery Counties); Pennsylvania; Virginia (except Arlington, Fairfax, Loudoun, Stafford, Prince William and King George Counties); West Virginia; Belmont, Jefferson and Lawrence Counties, Ohio; Boyd County, Kentucky; Camden County, New Jersey.
San Francisco Area Office U.S. Civil Service Commission P.O. Box 36122 450 Golden Gate Avenue San Francisco, California 94102	Arizona; California; Nevada.
San Juan Area Office U.S. Civil Service Commission PAN AM Building 255 Ponce De Leon Avenue Hato Rey, Puerto Rico 00917	Puerto Rico; Virgin Islands.
Seattle Area Office U.S. Civil Service Commission Federal Building—26th Floor 915 2nd Avenue Seattle, Washington 98174	Alaska; Idaho; Oregon; Washington.
St. Louis Area Office U.S. Civil Service Commission 1520 Market Street St. Louis, Missouri 63103	Iowa (except Scott County); Kansas; Missouri; Nebraska; Madison and St. Clair Counties, Illinois.
Washington, D.C. Area Office U.S. Civil Service Commission 1900 E Street, N.W. Washington, D.C. 20415	Washington Metropolitan Area (District of Columbia; Charles, Montgomery, and Prince Georges Counties, Maryland; the cities of Alexandria, Fairfax, and Falls Church, Virginia; and Arlington, Fairfax, Loudoun, Stafford, Prince William, and King George Counties, Virginia); overseas areas (except Pacific Ocean Area).

☆ U. S. Government Printing Office: 1976—679-286

it is the basis for an evaluation of past experience, references, and personal information listed on this Form 171.

The Personal Qualification Statement (SF-171) includes the following:

1. Request for permission to speak to your present employer regarding your character, qualifications, and record of employment.

2. A review of your present job: title, dates of employment, number of persons supervised, type of organization, reasons for wanting to leave, description of duties performed, and earnings.

3. An employment history of previous jobs (with the same questions to be answered as in 2. above) presented in reverse chronological order.

4. Statement of personal preferences as to kind of position sought, place where employment is desired, lowest pay and grade that would be accepted, and whether temporary or part-time employment will be acceptable.

5. Specification of educational background, special skills, licenses or certificates, and any honors.

6. Statement regarding: citizenship, Communist Party membership, whether you have been fired from any job in the last five years, record of any felonies and/or court-martial convictions, and whether you have relatives who are Federal employees.

7. Listing of the names, addresses and occupations of three references.

Since the Form 171 is an examination in the form of an application, it is worth adding a few general suggestions regarding the completion of this form.

1. Be accurate. Those reviewing your application will be seeking corroborative information, and they will also be forming an opinion of each candidate based upon the care with which the application is completed.

2. Be complete. Your qualification rating depends in large part on your experience and employment history. Present the quality of the work you performed in favorable light. They can only judge you on what you include.

3. Be honest. Intentional falsification of answers can lead to your disqualification, possible dismissal after you have begun work, or may be punishable through criminal prosecution.

The Form 171 and its counterpart at state and local levels is perhaps the most important document in a government employee's personnel file.

It provides detail about the applicant's (or employee's) growing repertoire of skills and capacities. Many public employees regularly update their Form 171's as they acquire new levels of competence through formal or informal activities. We feel that this Form is of sufficient importance to use it as a basis of Unit Assignment 1. The following steps will help you to complete this form. (You may wish to refer to the copy of the SF 171 included as part of the Assignment, Option 1 on page XIII.2.38 of this module.)

STEP 1: Obtain a copy of a Vacancy Announcement for a position for which you might quality.

On each announcement note the following:

- Open and closing dates, you must submit your application while the government is still recruiting.
- The agency involved.
- The geographical location of the position.
- The duties and requirements.

The government recruits for a wide range of occupations. You should apply only for those positions which both interest you and for which you have the required background. If possible get a copy of the detailed position description referred to in the announcement. Ask at the U.S. Civil Service Commission to see Handbook X118 or the Classification Standards. These will give you a expanded version of the qualifications and duties for the position.

STEP 2: Obtain several blank 171 forms and complete Page 1.

Item 1: A, B, C. Leave blank on the original. You can fill it in as you apply for different positions. When you do fill it in use the exact title of the Announcement.

Item 4: Leave "Miss" or "Mrs." boxes blank if you believe your marital status may be used against you. This omission will not constitute an incomplete application.

Item 9: Leave blank if you believe your age may be used against you. You can fill it in at the interview.

Item 13: Enter all the GS grades in which you are interested, otherwise you will only be considered for the lowest grade. Usually the Announcements are for lower grades, e.g., CS 5, in which case you might wish to list GS 7 and GS 9. You may want to enter, at a lower grade if that would give you access to a career ladder.

Item 15: Would you accept a temporary assignment in the Office of the Secretary, in OMB, or in the White House?

Item 16: What about a position in Hawaii?

Item 17: A high prestige part-time position might provide experience useful for advancement.

Item 18: At least say some. It might be a conference in Puerto Rico. In general, page 1 of the SF-171 should be completed in a way to expand your options as wide as possible.

STEP 3: Draft your Experience Blanks.

Item 20: You may wish to list No to the inquiry with your present employer if you feel such an inquiry would cause a disruption in your present employment.

Item 21: For your present position and for each previous position:

1. Describe the work you did.
2. Be specific and concise.
3. Use active verbs: I arranged transportation
   I wrote annual reports
   I programmed the computer
4. Use your own words and do not attach a job description.
5. Present your employment experience in skill terms as called for in the Announcement.
6. Present all your experience whether paid or volunteer.
7. Present the exact dates of your employment.
8. Compute your actual earnings including only part time, consulting, or other earned income. There is a tendency for the government to try to match your present income.
9. Account in a positive way for leaving one job for another.
10. Spell out what you did during lengthy periods when you will not be employed.

The following are two examples of how blank 20 may have been completed to describe the same position.

1. *Description of duties, responsibilities and accomplishments.* *Typing, filing, taking dictation, answering the phone. Usual office duties. Dr. Smith was the Special Assistant to Area Office Director.*

2. *Description of duties, responsibilities and accomplishments.* *Typed in finished form contracts and technical reports. I took legal dictation and transcribed conferences. From shorthand notes, rough drafts, verbal instructions or my own composition, I prepared correspondence to staff sections, subordinate units, visiting dignitaries as well as routine office communication. I documented and audited all incoming bills for the publications program. Arranged for scheduling and mode of transportation for the research unit. Prepared travel orders. Responsible for seven monthly reports. I accept and screen calls, receive visitors, respond to routine inquiries.*

Which description do you think is better?

Description 1

- *too general...typed what?*
- *too vague...usual office duties*
- *irrelevant material...who cares about Dr. Smith?*

Description 2

- *uses active verbs: took, documented, arranged, prepared*
- *describes more specifically what was done*

The Experience Blank should be expanded to fit the description. Do no be confined by the space allowed Some other tips in filling our Experience Blanks are:

- Avoid the use of abbreviations
- If possible show how your job has brought increased responsiblities or promotions.
- Indicate any outstanding results that have occurred as a consequence of your work.
- Include any volunteer experience in a separate Experience Block. List only that experience that is directly relevant of time and which demonstrate leadership, responsibility, initiative, organizational skills, or any other talent which is relevant for the job being sought.
- List every seminar, every government training course, etc. and describe where possible what you have learned that fits the new job.

The following is an example of an Experience Blank based on volunteer service.

I organized an NAACP (National Association for the Advancement of Colored People) Chapter while in Spokane, Washington. This involved contacting personnel in the community and communicating to them the work of the NAACP and the need for a Chapter in Spokane. I sought and received permission from the FEB Director to hold meetings in the Community Resources room. I was the first elected President and in that capacity I chaired chapter and executive committee meetings. Through the efforts of our chapter, we were able to get a Federal Women's Coordinator appointed with an area-wide responsibility. We developed a one-day training program for women and minorities on "Understanding the Employment Process," which was available to the Spokane community.

STEP 4: Record your Special Qualifications and Skills.

Item 21: A. Prepare an inventory of your talents and skills:

- Include anything you don't use in your experience blank.
- Use dates whenever possible.
- List any patents or inventions
- Give situations for your most important publications
- Include your public speaking experience
- List memberships in any professional or scientific societies.

B. Include a xerox copy of any license or certificate.

Item 22: A.

- Give your education back through the BA or AA degrees. Do not list high school unless you attended some prestige school.

G.

- Count all training. Record in the blank if possible, but if not, make a supplemental sheet. Show the dates, hours, location, sponsor, title and any outcome of the training.

Item 23: Include both work-related and community related awards. Letters of commendation, scholarships, fellowships, recognition by a church or civic organization should be included. These give evidence of your dependability, dedication, areas of expertise.

STEP 5: Submit personal references.

Item 25:
- Use only the names of people who know you.
- Use people who know your work.
- Ask permission in advance and indicate what you are applying for.
- Use poeple who can be easily reached by phone. Supply the telephone number even though it is not requested.
- Use people that a hiring officer is likely to contact. (If you list a Senator or a Bishop they probably will not be called.)
- At the state level references are only spot checked.

STEP 6: Answer items 26 through 36

- Answer all questions here and elsewhere in the application honestly.
- Items 27, 28, and 29 are no longer to be answered.
- Note that Items 30 and 31 should correlate with your Experience Blank.
- On the Supplemental Federal Application Statement, note that the item on Convictions requires you to list any offense after your 18th birthday.

STEP 7: Review and sign the statement.

It is necessary for you to date and sign both the SF-171 and the Supplemental Federal Application Statement. Failure to do so will only delay action on your application.

In addition to the above suggestions, review your application and:

- Make sure that it is neat, typewritten or in careful penmanship.
- Correct typing or spelling errors.
- Be sure that any copies you make are clear.
- Arrange your experience blanks in reverse chronological order.
- Be sure that the copy you submit has Items 1 A, B, and C completed
- Attach a resume if you have one prepared.
- Review your application to see if it tells a complete story about you.

3. Reference Check

Following a careful analysis of the application, civil service investigators generally contact some or all of the individuals listed as personal references. There are three major ways that reference checks are made: by written inquiry, by telephone interviews, and through face-to-face interviews. All reference checks are accomplished under some pressure, partly due to widespread negative feelings about investigators and partly because of fear of law suits, since applicants may have access to interview reports. Except for high level or for sensitive positions (e.g., a Drug Abuse Investigator), civil service commissions only do spot checking of references and, then, generally not until some problem develops.

Before listing a person's name as a reference, you should get their permission in advance and should tell them something about the job for which you are applying. A person used as a reference should be in a position to supply substantive information about you. If this is a character reference, then someone like your minister, priest, or rabbi is appropriate. A member of the clergy, on the other hand, may not know much about your professional skills.

At the beginning of a reference check, the public investigator should make clear who the applicant is, what job is being applied for, and the fact that the Privacy Act makes it possible for the applicant to subsequently review the report of the interview. The investigator should then attempt to establish the nature and extent of the association the reference has to the applicant. The reference check, whether a written inquiry, telephone conversation, or face-to-face interview will then include questions intended to corroborate statements made on the application and to probe any possible problems which the information on the application may indicate. Additional information may be sought, such as transcripts (if the applicant has signed a waiver for the release of this kind of information.)

The interview with a personal reference often turns up the names of other persons who should be interviewed. These would be followed up if a "full field" investigation is being carried out, as, for example, in the establishment of a security clearance. In most cases, however, inquiries are limited to the most recent employer. The following is the typical type of information solicited:

- Precise employment dates
- Formal and informal working titles
- Entry and leaving salary
- Absent and tardiness record
- Duties performed (job descriptions)
- Assessment of check with supervisor on quality of work performed
- Supervisory experience
- Reason for the job being terminated
- Personal habits with respect to use, if any, of alcohol and drugs which interfere with the job performance.

4. Examination

The final step in the recruitment process is the examination. By means of tests, the central personnel agency seeks to determine which among the applicants can perform the tasks in the position to be filled. Civil service commissions also may attempt to establish, from among the qualified applicants, a rank ordering of those expected to best perform on the job.

The process of selecting by means of competitive examination goes back to ancient China where examinations, largely based on the ideas of Confuscius, were used to select officials for the public service. In the United States, the use of examinations is associated with the establishment of a merit system. Competitive examinations, when viewed against the practice of awarding jobs on the basis of party loyalty, originally gained wide acceptance as an impartial and impersonal way to choose among candidates.

During the 1960's there was a tendency for personnel offices to attempt to be "scientific" through extensive use of testing. But many persons have questioned their scientific nature. There is a story that describes the selection procedures for Navigator Trainees and Pilot Trainees. A different yet equally extensive set of tests were used to select each group of trainees. Then, through a clerical error, the groups were switched; the group selected as Navigator Trainees were given Pilot Training and vice versa. Contrary to what was expected, the mis-assigned groups performed as well as any other "scientifically" selected group.

The decision to give a test must have a sound footing. The following are some preliminary questions that should be answered before a decision is made to use a test:

- What is to be measured by the test?
- Can this quality be measured by a test?
- What is the purpose of the test?
- Is a test the best way to achieve this objective?
- What are the standards to be employed?
- To whom is this test to be given?

The place to begin to prepare or select an examination for a position to be filled is with a detailed job analysis. With this in hand, the examiner will have a clear idea of what skills can appropriately be tested. Unfortunately, many positions in government have not been analyzed to determine what duties are to be performed; in fact, in state and local government a large percentage of the positions do not even have a job description. One of the motivations for turning to job analysis and a related tests is a high level of unsatisfactory performance in a job which may then encourage upper level management to invest in a testing program to improve the quality of the workforce. (For more on testing see Module 4.)

From the job analysis, speficic knowledge and skills may be abstracted. This may be extremely difficult for certain jobs, depending upon the quality of the work to be performed. For jobs that require the use of judgments, and in which the situation dictates the desirable course of action, pencil and paper tests are inadequate. In recruiting for these kinds of jobs the interviewing process is of critical importance.

In the past an unarticulated purpose of testing was to screen out applicants. The test was to limit the list of qualified persons. In a time when there is an abundance of candidates such a purpose can be justified, but if the need is to attract persons with desired skills, then there are problems. In retrospect, it is apparent that testing was also used to restrict entry to public jobs by minorities and women. Increasingly, examinations are being given which are designed to test for minimal skills along with a probing of an applicant's capacity for growth and development.

Given a variety of possible objectives in a recruitment program, it is by no means clear that a paper and pencil or oral test is the best means for determining who is qualified. Governments are also turning to some form of internship or training program to make possible an assessment of a person's qualities in the actual work situation. This is not, however, a new development; many governments have had a probation period which, in fact, was an on-the-job test. (See placement, below.) In many other jobs, however, it is not practical to test through a period of trial.

STUDY QUESTION

1. Why have governments turned to positive recruitment?

2. What are the two major employment systems in the public service, and what is the justification for each?

3. What are some of the major problems which make recruitment difficult?

4. Why is the application an important document?

5. What are some ways in which to best present yourself in a Personal Qualification statement ?

6. Describe three types of reference checks.

7. List the major areas covered by an investigator in a reference check.

8. What are some of the considerations which enter into a decision to use a test as a recruitment device?

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B. SELECTION

While centralized personnel agencies do most of the recruitment, selection is made by appointment officers who are supervisory people in line departments. Selection involves essentially three steps: interviewing the candidates, making the choice among those interviewed, and then placing the new employee.

1. Interviewing

Interviewing for the purpose of making a selection is an art which has two dimensions: a preparatory or planning stage, conducting the interview.

In the public sector, the products of the recruitment process are ranked lists of qualified candidates whose names appear on a register. The rankings are determined by the scores which the applicants receive on the assembled or unassembled examinations. (Generally, 70 out of 100 possible points on the examination is considered passing.) In addition to the points received from the examination, veterans receive 5 or 10 additional points if they pass the test--a bonus in recognition of their prior military service. For those positions and pay grades for which the SF-171 replaces an entrance test as the examination, the SF-171 is carefully reviewed and points are assigned on the basis of the reported experiences, honors, special abilities, etc. From these lists the top three are certified by the civil service commissions and submitted to the agency seeking to fill a position. This is called the "rule of three" whereby those three individuals with the highest point scores become the candidates from which the selection is made. Customarily an interview is used as the method for selecting from among the top three. Despite the critical role which the interview plays in making the decision about which one of the top three candidates will be chosen, few supervisors are trained to perform this function effectively. It is important to give attention to the interview first to assist you as an applicant to be better prepared to be interviewed and second to examine how to conduct an interview. (We feel that interviewing is so important that we have built an optional unit assignment around it.)

The main opportunity presented by an interview comes from its highly personalized and inter-active form. The interviewer sees the candidate, often alone, after there has been time to review the information about the candidate generated by the recruitment process. In the interview, the interviewer also has the opportunity to sell the agency not only from an entry level perspective but also to communicate something about the larger climate of the organization within which to pursue a career.

The following outlines the two major stages of the interview:

Preparing for the Interview:

- Obtain a thorough knowledge of the job to be filled. Review the job description to determine the skills, education, and experience needed to successfully perform the job.
- Prepare objectives criteria on which your judgment will be based.
- Plan questions which provide a basis for determining if the requisities for the job are present and at what level.
- Review the Affirmative Action policy and goals as they relate to the filling of this position.

Conducting the Interview:

- Opening: set the climate, put the applicant at ease, and clarify the-objectives of the interview.
- Use open-ended questions to probe for the applicant's values and to provide the applicant with an opportunity to express himself or herself freely and in his/her own words (e.g., Why are you seeking a career in government? What are your long range professional goals?)
- Focus on relevant selection by asking specific directed questions based on the applicant's record and the position description for the vacancy.
- Observe for verbal and non-verbal cues.
- Probe for negative information.
- Corroborate data presented in the application.
- Closing: make certain that you have covered the work history, etc. and are satisfied with the information; ask the applicant if he/she has any further questions pertaining to the timing or process of selection; and inform the applicant of how and when notification will occur.

2. Selection and Induction

With the interview report completed, the next step is selection. The whole process from the announcement has been one of steadily narrowing the field of potential employees. Generally, one of the three candidates who are interviewed is selected for the job and the other two candidates' files are returned to the civil service commission where they are re-entered on the civil service register. In the federal government, all three candidates can be rejected. Intangible factors such as personality, appearance, and initiative are usually not bought out by the examining procedure. Appointing officers confronted with an undesirable choice may attempt to reach further down the register below the top three by declaring one of the applicants was not qualified, by getting one or more to indicate that they are not available, or by returning the register to the commission with a revised description of the job. As a practical matter, considerable time elapses between the time eligible lists are prepared and vacancies occur and so often the top-rated applicants take other positions. Some states and cities have attempted to give appointing agencies greater flexibility by certifying as eligible all candidates who score above a passing mark.

Once a selection has been made, the identified applicant frequently serves a probation period, usually six months, during which time the applicant is still in a test situation. This process is called induction. At the end of a successful probation period the applicant becomes a full-time employee and also achieves civil service status, which carries with it some security in the job.

During the probationary induction period, however, the employee may be terminated at the sole discretion of the appointing officer. This period of trial on the job is an essential step between selection and placement--a check on the whole recruitment and placement procedure. Increasingly, appointing officers are required to make a formal appraisal of the induction period rather than simply to allow the time to elapse; this forces the appointing officer to make a performance evaluation. The probationary period can also be used constructively for training, indoctrination, and other adjustments. In the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania all veterans receive a 10 point bonus. The effect of the bonus is to diminish the appointing official's options because frequently the top scorers in the examination are pushed aside by veterans. During the induction period, employers have the opportunity to make a determination if the veteran is qualified for the job or if the bonus points projected an unqualified person into the top three. By its very nature veterans preference is controversial, with broad support by veterans organizations but opposed by civil service unions and merit system advocates. Within the Public Administration profession the balance of opinion is toward restricting the bonus to the five years immediately following the military service.

STUDY QUESTIONS

9. What are the main strengths and weaknesses in interviewing?

10. What is the purpose of the two major steps in the interviewing process?

11. What purposes does the probationary period serve?

C. THE ADMINISTRATION OF RECRUITMENT AND SELECTION

The history of personnel covers a movement away from a politically dominated system and towards a professional career served. Within the last decade, however, the idea of merit itself has been opposed. These attacks have put the administration of recruitment and placement into operational disarray. Two policy areas illustrate the problem: 1) the unresponsiveness of merit systems to a changing personnel environment and 2) the inherent conflict between merit systems and programs for human resource development.

The idea of merit underlies present recruitment and placement practices with repeated stress on competitive hiring and placing qualified applicants in a career service. The merit approach, for most of its history, has been focused on laws and regulations designed to keep the government free from politics. This narrow focus, perhaps useful in the days of machine politics, is no longer responsive to: 1) demands by upper line managers for higher levels of productivity; 2) insistence by public workers on greater political and civil rights; 3) the rise of public sector unionism; and 4) mounting pressures by women and minorities for equal employment opportunity. The failure of merit systems to address these policy issues has thrown the system into crisis.

Equally as problematic has been the failure of civil service commissions to adopt developmental manpower approaches. Increasingly, government agencies are paying closer attention to making full use of the knowledge and skills of people already on the job. Investments are made in training and education to help further develop in-house talent. In addition, personnel departments now seek to increase the supply of potential candidates by working directly with colleges and schools. A workforce capable of rapid expansion and contraction as dictated by changing economic and social needs is required. Personnel management for the 1970's must be able to respond to rapidly changing environmental conditions.

The management of personnel resources--including the recruitment and selection of new employees--must become more of a constructive support function for human resources management and less of a legal monitoring mission as has traditionally characterized the civil service commissions.

Where this legal-human resources dilemma emerges in full conflict is in the equal employment opportunity field where, increasingly, the law of the land is arrayed against merit practices and where the demand is pressed for the government to nurture and develop its resources in women and minorities.

STUDY QUESTIONS

12. What are the major attacks on the merit system?

13. Why are merit systems and government-wide programs for human resource development incompatible?

ASSIGNMENT

The following question should be answered as completely as possible on separate paper. Two copies of your responses should be mailed to the instructor. One copy will be returned to you with the instructor's comments and the other will be retained as part of your course record.

Answer either one of the following two options.

OPTION 1: *Everyone who works for government will at some time find it necessary to complete a background statement of experience and qualifications. In the federal government this is the Standard Form 171 Personal Qualifications Statement. The manner in which this form is completed can make the difference of whether you get the job or not, the grade (GS) level you get, and the step in that grade. SF 171's are also often required when you are considered for a promotion.*

The purpose of this assignment is to provide you with experience in filling out a background statement or in improving such a statement if you have one on file. A copy of the SF 171 is attached. The product of the assignment will be your completed Personal Qualifications Statement. It can be placed on blank sheets of paper, you may use a Xerox of the copy in this module or you may wish to secure a copy of the SF 171 from the Federal Government at one of its Job Information Centers.

As you complete your 171 keep in mind how it will be evaluated. People with two different functions will review the application with some care, a staffing specialist who will be looking to see how well your background and experience compares with the requirements for the position to be filled, and an appointing officer who will be thinking about how well you would fit into a particular organizational setting. You have the task for both of these individuals of presenting yourself in a way that distinguishes your SF 171 from the hundreds of other applications that are routinely submitted.

Obtain a copy of a Vacancy Announcement for a position for which you might qualify or use the example of an Announcement for an Equal Opportunity Specialist reproduced below. (If you use an announcement you obtained, include a copy of it with your assignment.)

ANNOUNCEMENT NO. PB 4-08
Issue Date: June 20, 1974
No Written Test Required
No Closing Date
For Early Consideration
Apply By: July 12, 1974

FEDERAL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES FOR EQUAL OPPORTUNITY SPECIALISTS

ALL QUALIFIED APPLICANTS WILL RECEIVE CONSIDERATION FOR APPOINTMENT WITHOUT REGARD TO RACE, RELIGION, COLOR, NATIONAL ORIGIN, SEX, POLITICAL AFFILIATIONS, OR ANY OTHER NON-MERIT FACTOR.

Baltimore Area Office
U. S. Civil Service Commission
Federal Office Building
Lombard Street & Hopkins Place
Baltimore, Maryland 21201

DESCRIPTION OF WORK: Equal opportunity specialists are concerned with civil rights and equality of opportunity for minorities and women in such area as employment, housing, education, medical services, social services, and business development. They advise and assist employers, administrators, managers, community groups, and State and local officials on matters pertaining to civil rights or equal opportunity; evaluate Federal laws and policies with respect to equal protection of the law; investigate the operating practices of organizations to determine compliance with Federal laws; or investigate and conciliate specific complaints of individuals or groups.

LOCATION OF POSITIONS TO BE FILLED: This announcement is used to fill positions in the States of Delaware; Maryland (except the counties of Montgomery, Prince George and Charles); Pennsylvania; Virginia (except the counties of Fairfax, King George, Stafford and Prince William, and cities of Arlington, Alexandria, Fairfax, and Falls Church); West Virginia; Camden County; New Jersey; the Ohio counties of Belmont, Jefferson and Lawrence; and Boyd County, Kentucky.

EXPERIENCE AND EDUCATION REQUIREMENTS

For Grade GS-5 you must meet one of the requirements:

1. Three years of experience; or
2. Completion of 4 years of education in a college or university leading to a bachelor's degree in directly related fields such as psychology, sociology, personnel management, education, public administration, or business administration; or
3. Any time-equivalent combination of such experience and education. In combining education with experience, an academic year is equivalent to 9 months of experience.

For Grade GS-7 you must meet one of these requirements:

1. Four years of experience; or
2. A bachelor's degree plus 1 year of graduate study in a directly related field such as psychology, sociology, personnel management, education, public administration, or business administration; or
3. A combination of education and experience.

EXPERIENCE: To be qualifying, experience must have been in work associated with programs designed to improve the economic, social or educational opportunities of individuals. The work experience must have demonstrated the following skills, knowledges, abilities and personal attributes needed for equal opportunity work:

-Awareness of social and economic problems created by discrimination against minorities and women.
-Ability to meet and deal effectively with persons of both sexes of different ages, races, and economic and educational background.
-Ability to collect and assemble pertinent facts.
-Ability to write clearly.

The following types of experience are illustrative of acceptable experience, provided they meet the above criteria:

(1) Active participation in community programs designed to promote equality;
(2) Counseling persons with problems concerning discrimination or rehabilitation;
(3) Other types of counseling that provided insight and understanding of the problems that contribute to the discrimination against minorities and women;
(4) Participation in programs designed to promote equal opportunity sponsored by educational, religious, professional, social service organizations, etc.;
(5) Social work, personnel work, recreational services for groups that included minorities or economically disadvantaged youth, or other work that has provided the type of knowledges, skills, and abilities discussed above.

EDUCATION: To qualify on the basis of education you must show, through coursework and campus activities, that you have gained the types of knowledges, skills, abilities, and personal qualities needed for equal opportunity work. Personal qualities include empathy, objectivity, perceptiveness, resourcefulness, flexibility, stability and maturity.

QUALITY OF EXPERIENCE, EDUCATION AND TRAINING: Your record of experience, education, and training must show that you have personal qualities and abilities commensurate with the duties and responsibilities of the particular grade of the position for which he is being considered. Except for those who qualify solely on the basis of education, candidates for the GS-7 level must have had at least 6 months of experience comparable in difficulty and responsibility to the next lower grade in the Federal service, or 1 year comparable to the second lower grade.

UNPAID EXPERIENCE OR VOLUNTEER WORK: Credit will be given for appropriate unpaid experience or volunteer work such as in community, cultural, social service, and professional experience should be shown, as appropriate, in one or more of the experience blocks of Standard Form 171. To receive proper credit, you must show the dates and the actual time, such as the number of hours per week, spent in each volunteer activity.

BASIS OF RATING: No written test is required. You will be rated on a scale of 100 on the extent and quality of your experience and training. This will be based on your statements and on any additional information obtained by the Civil Service Commission. Personal qualities will be evaluated through interview by a panel. The interview will be conducted when you are being considered for a specific vacancy.

REFERRAL TO VACANCIES: Equal opportunity positions may vary significantly in the kinds, combinations, and degrees of knowledges and skills required. For trainee positions referral will be made by highest score. For other positions referral will be limited to those eligibles who have knowledges or experience in the appropriate specialized area(s), such as employment, housing, education, medical services, social services, business development, etc.

In filling vacancies, consideration may be given first to those eligibles who indicate a preference for the State in which the vacancy exists. You should indicate in block 1-D of the Personal Qualifications Statement (Standard Form 171) the one State in which you would prefer to work. If you do not give a preference, your State of residence will be assumed to be your State of preference.

LENGTH OF ELIGIBILITY: Your name will remain on the list of eligibles for an initial period of one year from the date of your notice of rating. After 10 months of eligibility you may renew your eligibility for an additional year by submitting up-to-date information about your qualifications. If you do not bring your application up-to-date within the prescribed one-year period, your name will be suspended form the list of eligibles.

WHEN TO FILE: Applications will be accepted until further notice. Because of the urgent need to fill current vacancies, applicants desiring early consideration should apply by July 12, 1974.

GENERAL INFORMATION: For information about citizenship, age, kinds of appointments, physical abilities required, veterans preference, and other general information see Civil Service Commission Pamphlet BRE-37, "Working for the U.S.A.", which you can obtain at most places where applications and other forms are available.

WHAT TO FILE

1. Standard Form 171. Be sure to show the exact title of the position; the Announcement Number, the State of preference (see paragraph "Referral to Vacancies"); and the lowest grade you are willing to accept.
2. Supplemental Qualification Statement for Equal Opportunity Specialist.
3. Card Form CSC 5001-BC
4. List of College Courses, CSC Form 226
5. Standard Form 15, with the documentary proof required therein, if you are claiming 10 point veteran preference. Documentary proof will be returned to you.

WHERE TO OBTAIN FORMS: Forms may be obtained by visiting or calling your local Federal Job Information Center. Consult your local telephone directory for the address or telephone number of the nearest Center. If you do not reside near a Center, you may call a Center toll-free in the State in which you reside. Call the Wide Area Telephone Service (WATS) Operator at 800-555-1212 and ask for the number of the Federal Job Information Center in your State.

WHERE TO SEND FORMS:

Baltimore Area Office
U. S. Civil Service Commission
Federal Office Building
Lombard Street and Hopkins Place
Baltimore, Maryland 21201

SPECIAL NOTE: The Civil Service Commission furnishes information on Federal employment opportunities, qualification requirements, and application procedures without charge.

The Civil Service Commission has no connection with any private employment agency or so called "civil service" school. No "civil service" school or employment agency can guarantee that you will be found qualified for a particular position or that you will rank high enough on a list of eligible applicants to be offered a job with the Federal Government.

STANDARD FORM 171

UNITED STATES CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION

PERSONAL QUALIFICATIONS STATEMENT

IMPORTANT

READ THE FOLLOWING INSTRUCTIONS CAREFULLY BEFORE FILLING OUT YOUR STATEMENT

All requested information must be furnished. The information you give will be used to determine your qualifications for employment.

It is IMPORTANT that you answer all questions on your Statement *fully* and *accurately;* failure to do so may delay its consideration and could mean loss of employment opportunities.

If an item does not apply to you, or if there is no information to be given, please write in the letters "N.A." for Not Applicable.

GENERAL INSTRUCTIONS

- Use typewriter if available. Otherwise, write legibly or print clearly in dark ink.
- If you are applying for a specific civil service examination, follow exactly the directions in the examination announcement as well as the instructions for filling out this form.
- For a written examination, the admission card tells you what to do with this Statement.
- If the examination involves no written test, mail this Statement to the office named in the examination announcement. Be sure to mail to the same office any other forms required in the announcement.
- Notify the office with which you file this Statement of any change in your name or address.

INSTRUCTION RELATING TO SPECIFIC ITEMS

ITEM 13. LOWEST GRADE OR SALARY

- Enter the lowest grade OR the lowest salary you will accept. You will not be considered for any lower grade or salary; you *will* be considered for higher grades or salary. If you enter grade, do not enter salary.

ITEM 19. ACTIVE MILITARY SERVICE AND VETERAN PREFERENCE

- Five-point preference is granted to veterans if they are honorably separated from the armed forces; (a) after active duty during the periods April 6, 1917, to July 2, 1921, or December 7, 1941, to July 1, 1955; (b) after more than 180 consecutive days of active duty after January 31, 1955 (not counting service under an initial period of active duty for training under the "6-month" Reserve or National Guard programs); or (c) after service in a campaign for which a campaign badge has been authorized.
- If you claim five-point preference, you are not required to furnish records to support your claim until the time of appointment.
- Ten-point preference is granted in some cases to disabled veterans, including veterans awarded the Purple Heart, to widows of veterans, to wives of disabled veterans, and to mothers of deceased or disabled veterans. See Standard Form 15, Claim for 10-Point Veteran Preference.
- If you claim ten-point preference, complete Standard Form 15 and attach it, together with the proof called for in that form, to this Statement.

ITEM 20. EXPERIENCE

- Take time to fill in these experience blocks carefully and completely. Your qualifications rating depends in a large part on your experience and employment history. *Failure to give complete details may delay consideration of your Statement.* Answers given in this item may be verified with former employers.
- When the block contains experience in more than one type of work (examples: carpentry and painting, or personnel and budget) estimate and indicate the approximate percentage of time spent in each type of work. Place these percentages in parentheses at the end of the description of the duties.

PLEASE READ ADDITIONAL INSTRUCTIONS ON BACK OF THIS SHEET

ITEM 20. EXPERIENCE—(Continued)

- *Block 1*—Describe your present position in this block. Indicate in this block if you are now unemployed or if you have never been employed.
- *Blocks 2 and 3*—Describe in Block 2 the position you held just before your present position, and continue to work backwards using Block 3.
- *Need for additional blocks*—If you need more experience blocks, use Standard Form 171-A, Continuation Sheet, or a plain piece of paper. If you use plain paper, each experience block must contain all of the information requested in Item 20 of the printed Statement. If there is not enough space in any of the experience blocks to describe the positions held, continue the description on a plain piece of paper. Identify each plain sheet at the top by showing your name, birth date, examination or position title, and the block under Item 20 from which the description is continued. Attach these supplemental sheets to the top of page 3 at place marked, "Attach Supplemental Sheets or Forms Here."
- *Description of duties, responsibilities, and accomplishments*— Describe each job briefly, including required skills and abilities. Include description of any specialties and special assignments; your authority and responsibility; your relationships to others; accomplishments; and any other factors which help describe the job.
- *General Information*—If supervision over other employees was one of your duties, be sure to indicate the number and kind (and grades, if Federal Government) of employees supervised by you, and explain your duties as a supervisor under description of duties.
- Indicate in each block of Item 20 the name under which you were employed if it was different from the name in Item 4 of this Statement. Show former name in parentheses after "Description of duties and accomplishments in your work."
- Use separate blocks if your duties, responsibilities, or salary level changed materially while working for the same employer. Treat each such change as a separate position.
- Include your military or merchant marine service in separate blocks in its proper order and describe major duty assignments.
- Experience acquired more than 15 years ago may be summarized in one block if it is not applicable to the type of position applied for.
- Account for periods of unemployment in separate blocks in order.
- Indicate estimated number of hours worked per week in the space provided if you were on part-time work.
- Section 3311 of title 5, United States Code, provides that in examinations in which experience is a factor, credit will be granted for any pertinent religious, civic, welfare, service, and organizational activity which you have performed either with or without compensation. You *may*, if you wish, report such experience at the end of your employment history if you feel that it represents qualifying experience for the position(s) for which you are applying. Show actual time spent in such activity.

ITEMS 27 AND 28. MEMBERSHIP IN ORGANIZATIONS

- Answer these questions carefully. Admitted past membership and participation in an organization of the type to which this question refers does not by itself disqualify you for Government employment. Consideration will be given to the nature of the organization, the extent of your participation, and any other relevant facts and circumstances.

ITEMS 34 AND 35. RELATIVES EMPLOYED BY THE UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT

- A Federal official (civilian or military) may not appoint any of his relatives or recommend them for appointment in his agency, and a relative who is appointed in violation of this restriction can not be paid. Thus it is necessary to have information about your relatives who are working for the Government. In listing relative(s) in answer to question 34 include: father, mother, son, daughter, brother, sister, uncle, aunt, first cousin, nephew, niece, husband, wife, father-in-law, mother-in-law, son-in-law, daughter-in-law, brother-in-law, sister-in-law, stepfather, stepmother, stepson, stepdaughter, stepbrother, stepsister, half brother, and half sister.
- Question 35 is needed because of restrictions in making a career or career-conditional appointment in the competitive service when a person is not entitled to veteran preference and two or more members of his family are already serving in the competitive service under a career or career-conditional appointment.

CERTIFICATION

- Be careful that you have answered all questions on your Statement correctly and considered all statements fully so that your eligibility can be decided on all the facts. Read the certification carefully before you sign and date your Statement.
- Sign your name in ink.
- Use one given name, initial or initials, and surname.

PLEASE DETACH THIS INSTRUCTION SHEET BEFORE SUBMITTING YOUR STATEMENT

STANDARD FORM 171

PERSONAL QUALIFICATIONS STATEMENT

Office of Management and Budget
Approved 50-RO387

1A. Kind of position *(job)* you are filing for *(or title of announcement)*

B. Announcement No.

C. Options for which you wish to be considered *(if listed in announcement)*

D. Primary place(s) you wish to be employed

2. Home phone *(including Area Code)*

3. Office phone *(including Area Code)*

4. Name *(Last) (First) (Middle) (Maiden, if any)* ☐ Mr. ☐ Miss ☐ Mrs.
and Address *(Number, Street, City, State and ZIP Code)*

5. Legal or voting residence *(State)*

6. Height without shoes
______ Feet ______ Inches

7. Weight

8. Birthplace *(City and State, or foreign country)*

9. Birth date *(Month, day, year)*

10. Social Security Account Number

11. If you have ever been employed by the Federal Government as a civilian, give your last classification series, grade, and job title.

Dates of service in that grade
From To

12. If you are currently on a list of eligibles for appointment to a Federal position, give the name of the announcement, the name of the office maintaining the list, the date on your notice of rating, and your rating.

13. Lowest pay or grade you will accept

PAY		GRADE
$ per	OR	

14. When will you be

DO NOT WRITE IN THIS BLOCK
FOR USE OF EXAMINING OFFICE ONLY

ANNOUNCEMENT NO.

☐ Appor. ☐ Nonappor.	Material ☐ Submitted ☐ Returned	Entered Register:

Notations:

Form Reviewed:

Form Approved:

Option	Grade	Earned Rating	Preference	Aug. Rating
			☐ 5 points (Tent.)	
			☐ 10 Points Comp Dis.	
			☐ Other 10 Points	
			☐ Disal.	
			☐ Being Investigated	
Initials and Date				

STATEMENT NO.

THIS SPACE FOR USE OF APPOINTING OFFICER ONLY

Preference has been verified through proof that the separation was under honorable conditions, and other proof as required.

☐ 5-Pt. ☐ 10-Pt. Comp. Disab. ☐ 10-Pt. Other

Signature and Title

Agency

Date

☐ Refer for medical action

15. Will you accept temporary employment for:

(Acceptance or refusal of temporary employment will not affect your consideration for other appointments.)

	YES	NO
__1 month or less?		
__1 to 4 months?		
__4 to 12 months?		

16. Where will you accept a job?

	YES	NO
__Washington, D.C.		
__Any place in the United States.		
__Outside of the United States.		
__Only in *(specify)*		

17. Will you accept less than full time work?
(Less than 40 hours per week) ☐ Yes ☐ No

18. Are you willing to travel? *(Check one)*

NO	SOME	OFTEN

19. VETERAN PREFERENCE. Answer all parts. If a part does not apply to you, answer "No."

	Yes	No
A. Have you ever served on active duty in the United States military service? *(Exclude tours of active duty for training as a reservist or Guardsman.)*		
B. Have you ever been discharged from the armed services under other than honorable conditions? *(You may omit any such discharge changed to honorable by a Discharge Review Board or similar authority.)* *If "Yes," give details in Item 37*		
C. Do you claim 5-point preference based on active duty in the armed forces? *If "Yes," you will be required to furnish records to support your claim at the time you are appointed.*		
D. Do you claim 10-point preference? *If "Yes," check type of preference claimed and complete and attach Standard Form 15, "Claim for 10-point Veteran Preference," together with the proof called for in that form*		

TYPE: ☐ Compensable disability ☐ Disability ☐ Wife ☐ Widow ☐ Mother

E. List Dates, Branch, and Serial or Service Number of All Active Service *(Enter "N.A." if not applicable)*

From	To	Branch of Service	Serial or Service Number

THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT IS AN EQUAL OPPORTUNITY EMPLOYER

Standard Form 171
September 1971 U.S. Civil Service Commission
171-104

SELECTION

PLEASE BE SURE TO READ ATTACHED INSTRUCTIONS BEFORE COMPLETING ITEM 20

20. EXPERIENCE *(Start with your PRESENT position and work back. Account for periods of unemployment in separate blocks in order.)*

May inquiry be made of your present employer regarding your character, qualifications, and record of employment? ☐ Yes ☐ No
(A "No" will not affect your consideration for employment opportunities except for HEARING EXAMINER positions.)

1

Dates of employment *(month, year)*
From To PRESENT TIME

Exact title of position

If Federal service, civilian or military grade

Salary or earnings
Starting $ per
Present $ per

Avg. hrs. per week

Place of employment
City:
State:

Number and kind of employees supervised

Kind of business or organization *(manufacturing, accounting, insurance, etc.)*

Name of immediate supervisor

Area Code and phone No. if known

Name of employer *(firm, organization, etc.)* and address *(including ZIP Code, if known)*

Reason for wanting to leave

Description of duties, responsibilities, and accomplishments

For agency use *(skill codes, etc.)*

2

Dates of employment *(month, year)*
From To

Exact title of position

If Federal service, civilian or military grade

Salary or earnings
Starting $ per
Final $ per

Avg. hrs. per week

Place of employment
City
State

Number and kind of employees supervised

Kind of business or organization *(manufacturing, accounting, insurance, etc.)*

Name of immediate supervisor

Area Code and phone No. if known

Name of employer *(firm, organization, etc.)* and address *(including ZIP Code, if known)*

Reason for leaving

Description of duties, responsibilities, and accomplishments

For agency use *(skill codes, etc.)*

3

Dates of employment *(month, year)*
From To

Exact title of position

If Federal service, civilian or military grade

Salary or earnings
Starting $ per
Final $ per

Avg. hrs. per week

Place of employment
City
State

Number and kind of employees supervised

Kind of business or organization *(manufacturing, accounting, insurance, etc.)*

Name of immediate supervisor

Area Code and phone No. if known

Name of employer *(firm, organization, etc.)* and address *(including ZIP Code, if known)*

Reason for leaving

Description of duties, responsibilities, and accomplishments

For agency use *(skill codes, etc.)*

IF YOU NEED ADDITIONAL EXPERIENCE BLOCKS USE STANDARD FORM 171-A OR BLANK SHEETS
SEE INSTRUCTION SHEET

ATTACH SUPPLEMENTAL SHEETS OR FORMS HERE

• ANSWER ALL QUESTIONS CORRECTLY AND FULLY

21. A. Special qualifications and skills (*skills with machines, patents or inventions; your most important publications (do not submit copies unless requested); your public speaking and publications experience; membership in professional or scientific societies, etc.*)

B. Kind of License or Certificate (*For example, pilot, registered nurse, lawyer, radio operator, C.P.A., etc.*)	C. State or other licensing authority	D. Year of first license or certificate	E. Year of latest license or certificate	F. Approximate number of words per minute: Typing Shorthand

22. A. Did you graduate from high school, or will you graduate within the next nine months? YES MONTH/YEAR NO HIGHEST GRADE COMPLETED	B. Name and location (*city and State*) of last high school attended

C. Name and location (*city, State, and ZIP Code if known*) of college or university. (*If you expect to graduate within 9 months, give MONTH and year you expect degree.*)	Dates attended		Years Completed		No. of credits compl.		Type of degree (B.A., etc.)	Year of degree
	From	To	Day	Night	Semester hours	Quarter hours		

D. Chief undergraduate college subjects	No. of credits compl.		E. Chief graduate college subjects	No. of credits compl.	
	Semester hours	Quarter hours		Semester hours	Quarter hours

F. Major field of study at highest level of college work

G. Other schools or training (*for example, trade, vocational, armed forces, or business*). Give for each the name and location (*city, State, and ZIP Code if known*) of school, dates attended, subjects studied, number of classroom hours of instruction per week, certificates, and any other pertinent data.

23. HONORS, AWARDS, AND FELLOWSHIPS RECEIVED

24. LANGUAGES OTHER THAN ENGLISH

List the languages and indicate your knowledge of each by placing "X" in proper columns	Reading			Speaking			Understanding			Writing		
	Exc.	Good	Fair	Exc.	Good	Fair	Exc.	Good	Fair	Exc.	Good	Fair

25. REFERENCES. List three persons who are NOT related to you and who have definite knowledge of your qualifications and fitness for the position for which you are applying. Do not repeat names of supervisors listed under Item 20 EXPERIENCE.

FULL NAME	PRESENT BUSINESS OR HOME ADDRESS (*Number, Street, City, State and ZIP Code*)	BUSINESS OR OCCUPATION

ANSWER ITEMS 26 THROUGH 36 BY PLACING AN "X" IN THE PROPER COLUMN	Yes	No	
26. Are you a citizen of the United States? If "No," give country of which you are a citizen:			◀
Before answering these questions read Items 27 and 28 in the attached instructions. Are you now, or within the last ten years have you been, a member of: 27. The Communist Party, U.S.A., or any subdivision of the Communist Party, U.S.A.?			◀
28. An organization that to your present knowledge seeks the overthrow of the constitutional form of government of the United States by force or violence or other unlawful means?			◀
If your answer to Item 27 or 28 is "Yes," write your answers to the following questions in Item 37 or on a separate piece of paper: (A) The name of the organization? (B) The dates of your membership? (C) Your understanding of the aims and purposes of the organization at the time of your membership?	▨	▨	
29. To insure that you are not placed in a position which might impair your health, or which might be a hazard to you or to others, we need information about the following: Do you have, or have you had, heart disease, a nervous breakdown, epilepsy, tuberculosis, or diabetes? *If your answer is "Yes," concerning any one of these, identify which one(s) and give details in Item 37.*			◀
30. Within the last five years have you been fired from any job for any reason?			◀
31. Within the last five years have you quit a job after being notified that you would be fired?			◀
If your answer to 30 or 31 above is "Yes," give details in Item 37. Show the name and address (including ZIP Code) of employer, approximate date, and reasons in each case. This information should agree with your answers in Item 20, EXPERIENCE.	▨	▨	
32. Have you ever been convicted of an offense against the law or forfeited collateral, or are you now under charges for any offense against the law? (You may omit: (1) traffic violations for which you paid a fine of $30.00 or less; and (2) any offense committed before your 21st birthday which was finally adjudicated in a juvenile court or under a Youth Offender law.)			◀
33. While in the military service were you ever convicted by general court-martial?			◀
If your answer to 32 or 33 is "Yes," give details in Item 37. Show for each offense: (1) date; (2) charge; (3) place; (4) court; and (5) action taken.	▨	▨	
34. Does the United States Government employ in a civilian capacity or as a member of the Armed Forces any relative of yours (by blood or marriage)? (See Items 34 and 35 in the attached instruction sheet.)			◀
35. Do you live with, or within the past 12 months have you lived with, any of these relatives who are employed in a civilian capacity?			◀
If your answer to 34 is "Yes," give in Item 37 for such relatives: (1) full name; (2) present address (including ZIP Code); (3) relationship; (4) department, agency, or branch of the Armed Forces. If your answer to 35 is "Yes," also give the kind of appointment held by the relative(s) you live with or have lived with within the past 12 months.	▨	▨	
36. Do you receive or do you have a pending application for retirement or retainer pay, pension, or other compensation based upon military, Federal civilian, or District of Columbia Government service? *If your answer is "Yes," give details in Item 37.*			◀

Your Statement cannot be processed until you have answered all questions, including Items 26 through 36 above. Be sure you have placed an "X" to the left of EVERY marker (◀) above, either in the "Yes" or the "No" column.

37. Space for detailed answers. Indicate Item number to which answers apply.

Item No.	

If more space is required, use full sheets of paper approximately the same size as this page. Write on EACH sheet your name, birth date, and *announcement or position* title. Attach all sheets to this Statement at the top of Page 3.

ATTENTION — THIS STATEMENT MUST BE SIGNED

Read the following paragraph carefully before signing this Statement

A false answer to any question in this Statement may be grounds for not employing you, or for dismissing you after you begin work, and may be punishable by fine or imprisonment (U.S. Code, Title 18, Sec. 1001). All statements are subject to investigation, including a check of your fingerprints, police records, and former employers. All the information you give will be considered in reviewing your Statement and is subject to investigation. A false answer to Items 27 or 28 could deprive you of your right to an annuity when you reach retirement age in addition to the penalties described above.

CERTIFICATION	SIGNATURE *(Sign in ink)*	DATE SIGNED
I CERTIFY that all of the statements made in this Statement are true, complete, and correct to the best of my knowledge and belief, and are made in good faith.		

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OPTION 2: Tape record an actual or role-played interview--approximately 10 minutes. Send in the tape (cassette) along with your answers to the following questions:

a. How was the interview opened? (Give examples from the tape of opening statements and/or questions and speculate on how effective they were.)

b. Cite examples from the tape of the questioning strategy (directive and open-ended questions). How would you judge their effectiveness?

c. Estimate the percentages of interviewer and applicant talk. Do you think the amounts were appropriate? Why or Why not?

d. Provide examples of any digression, elaboration, selective focusing, and prolonging techniques that were used.

e. How was the interview closed? (Give examples from the tape of closing comments and speculate on how effective they were).

f. Since this is possibly your first experience with taping an interview, we don't expect that the interview was perfect. (Few are.) Which areas would you recommend for more planning and practice?

STUDY QUESTIONS

Answer Key

1. a. Positive recruitment relates to merit employment.
   b. Traditionally it was believed that no active recruitment was needed.
   c. Government now has to compete for talented persons with skills that are in short supply.
   d. It is now necessary to sell applicants on government as a career.
   e. Affirmative Action requirements make the active recruitment of minorities and women essential.

2. a. The patronage system makes possible a policy input by the winning political party and it provides opportunities for individuals who have worked in elections to find employment.
   b. The merit system, which seeks to select employees on the basis of their performance on competitive examinations. Merit systems strive to scientifically select individuals for particular jobs.

3. a. It is difficult to select between internal and external recruitment.
   b. Restrictions such as residency, age (under some circumstances), unrelated educational requirements, and other standards limit the available applicant pool.
   c. Veterans Preference is a major recruiting difficulty.

4. a. It is the prerequisite to taking a civil service examination.
   b. The Form 171 is both an application and an unassembled examination for selection to a mid-level post. The application form supplies the information that is judged to determine the applicant's qualification for a job.

5. a. Give all of your relevant experience.
   b. Include voluntary as well as paid experience.
   c. State what you did and the skills you have that are relevant to the position.
   d. Periodically update your SF 171 as your knowledge and skills increase.

6. a. Letters can be written to those listed as references with the request for an evaluation of the applicant in terms of the position to be filled.
   b. Telephone checks can be made to substantiate information put on the application form.
   c. Face to face interviews permit the probing in-depth of specific areas which have been suggested by the application.

7. a. Checking to determine how well reference knows the applicant.
   b. Corroborating factual data on the application.
   c. Checking previous job requirements and performance.
   d. Establishing a view of the applicant as a person.

8. a. A determination of what is to be tested, how the test is to be conducted, clarity of what the test will reveal and the establishment of standards.

9. a. Strengths:

  - Interviewer meets the applicant face-to-face.
  - Interviewer can probe responses of the applicant and information provided on an application.
  - Interviewer can "sell" the organization to the applicant.

  b. Weaknesses:

  - Interviewer may not be trained or competent.
  - Applicant may not have good verbal skills--which may have no bearing for the job but which may adversely affect interview.
  - Face-to-face contact may introduce non-job-related biases into selection decision.

10. a. Objective job-related criteria are clearly identified.
  b. Specific questions relating to the prospective job and the applicant's work experience are structured in advance.
  c. Questions of various types--open-eneded and directed--are thought out in advance.
  d. The interview is more objective and generates more useful, less subjective data.

11. a. The candidate can be observed on-the-job for a period of time.
  b. Termination may occur during the probationary period at the sub discretion of the appointing officer.
  c. Unqulaified candidates can be removed before they obtain full civil service and/or union protection.

12. a. The merit system is unresponsive to a changing personnel environment.
  b. Merit systems conflict with human resource development programs.

13. a. Merit systems traditionally focus on laws and regulations and not on human resources development or utilization.
  b. Merit systems may block the development of minority and female employment opportunities by being inflexible.
  c. Merit systems tend not to focus on helping potential candidates to become qualified.

PA 848
MANAGEMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCES

MODULE 3:
AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

PREPARED
BY:
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UNIVERSITY EXTERNAL STUDIES PROGRAM

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MODULE 3: AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

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MODULE 3: AFFIRMATIVE ACTION

KEY TERMS AND CONCEPTS

- Employment Discrimination
- Equal Employment Opportunity
- Affirmative Action
- Affirmative Action Plan
- Recruitment Process
- Civil Service Commissions

INTRODUCTION

Affirmative Action requires much more than the absence of overt discrimination. In the short run it necessitates a positive program to recruit and promote people who have been excluded by reason of their race, sex, age, handicap, or national origin. In the long run Affirmative Action redefines and legitimizes the idea of merit employment and undergirds progressive management practices.

The purpose of this Module is to provide a basic understanding of how Affirmative Action relates to the goal of achieving equal employment opportunity for all. While the focus will be on rooting-out discriminatory practices, the fact that such practices exist and their resistance to being eliminated point to the need for more effective management practices. Discrimination as it turns out is not only illegal but is fundamentally a result of inept management.

The law against discrimination is clear and unequivocal. Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 as amended in 1972 states:

> Discrimination because of race, color, religion, sex, age, handicap or national origin in all employment practices including hiring, firing, layoffs, promotion, wages, training, disciplinary action and other terms, privileges, conditions or benefits of employment is prohibited.

The Civil Rights Act was passed to protect the rights of racial minorities, but subsequent legislation, Executive Orders and regulations have provided comparable rights to women, religious groups, those between ages 40 and 65, the physically handicapped, and ethnic minorities. Collectively this group comprises over 80% of all Americans. Affirmative Action by Congressional definition reaches beyond ending discrimination and toward a goal of diversifying governmental profiles by bringing in talented persons from the range of groups who comprise the nation.

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

When you have completed this unit, you should be able to:

1. State the reasons why programs to achieve equal employment opportunity in government are necessary.
2. Identify discriminatory practices in the employment process.
3. Outline what governments are required to do in Affirmative Action Plans and programs.
4. Explain the relationship of Affirmative Action to good management.
5. Report on the Affirmative Action Plan of a public organization suggesting your analysis of the official committment to the plan, possible outstanding problems, and strategies to make it more effective.

OVERVIEW

Objectives	Tasks	Resources	Evaluation
1. State the reasons why programs to achieve equal employment opportunity in government are necessary.	Study Questions 1,2,4	Module Reading A	Self
2. Identify discriminatory practices in the employment process.	Study Questions 3,4,5	Module Readings A,B	Self
3. Outline what governments are required to do in Affirmative Action Plans and programs.	Study Questions 6,7,8,9,11	Module Readings C,D	Self
4. Explain the relationship of Affirmative Action to good management	Study Questions 10,11	Module Reading D	Self
5. Report on the Affirmative Action Plan of a public organization suggesting your analysis of the official committment to the plan, possible outstanding problems, and strategies to make it more effective.	Module Assignment	Module Readings and Your Experience	Instructor Feedback

A. THE NEED FOR EQUAL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITY PROGRAMS IN GOVERNMENT

When one thinks of discrimination in employment, probably the craft unions, business firms in the South, or higher education come to mind. It is well publicized that blacks hold few jobs as electricians and that few women have achieved tenure in universities. It is somewhat less appreciated that government--at federal, state, and local levels--needs to assure equal employment opportunity in its own ranks.

Systematic employment discrimination by government against minorities and women is of long standing. It can be traced back in the slavery system, where laws prevented blacks and women from holding public jobs. We know that slaves were important public servants. They performed much of what is now called public works: they constructed roads, harbors, bridges; they served in the military; and they maintained sanitation systems. Yet they were neither regarded nor paid as public employees. For the first 200 years of the nation's history the government firmly enforced an employment policy which made discrimination mandatory.

The first break through into public employment for minorities and women came with the Reconstruction Period following the Civil War. For the first time blacks and some women entered the public services, primarily in state and local government. Most of these advances occured in the South, but they were quickly ended with the removal of Federal troops in 1876 and the resurgence of Jim Crow laws. At the national level, the employment of blacks grew slowly and, by the turn of the century, their representation in the federal service equaled their percentage in the population. Women made less progress during this period, perhaps due to Victorian chauvinism. But with the Administrations of William Howard Taft and Woodrow Wilson the policy of restricting the number of blacks in government and the segregating of those who were employed returned as the national policy. Blacks were prevented from working alongside whites; they could not use the same lunch rooms or toilet facilities and were restricted to the lowest paying public jobs. A condescending protectionism for women forced them into low level clerical jobs. States and local governments throughout the country followed these practices of systematic discrimination.

From the 1920's to 1961 the policy of the government at all levels supported discriminatory practices. The rule of three coupled with the requirements that applicants include a photograph permitted appointment officers to systematically discriminate. In civil service commissions, rating officers used the photographs as a means of preventing minorities and women from rising to the top of the registers. And since appointment officers could select from the top three, they used this discretion as an opportunity to express their bias. With the threatened protest march on Washington by 100,000 blacks seeking equal opportunity led by A. Philip Randolph in 1941, the Federal government reluctantly took the first step toward opposing discrimination in employment by announcing that the government would no longer condone discriminatory practices. In Executive Order 8802, President Franklin D. Roosevelt indicated that the Federal policy no longer condoned employment discrimination by private employers receiving federal contracts.*

For public employment, the policy against discrimination for the period from 1941 to 1961 remained *reactive*. Employment discrimination was condemned, but little initiative was taken beyond the recognition that a problem existed. With the Kennedy Administration a *proactive* posture was assumed. Through Executive Order 10925 the federal government committed itself to taking affirmative action to root out employment discrimination. The passage of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 added Congressional support to ending discrimination and established the United States Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (USEEOC) to administer this policy. Executive Order 11478 issued by President Nixon extended the policy of equal opportunity to every aspect of personnel policy. For the achievement of equal opportunity, personnel at every level were to play a role--immediate supervisors, bureau and department heads, and those in staff functions like financial management, planning and evaluation. In 1972, this Commission was given authority to supervise state and local governments. Responsibility for equal employment opportunity programs for federal employees was lodged in the United States Civil Service Commission (USCSC).

In 1977, the problem is not so much that there are fewer jobs for minorities and for women in government than whites, although in some cities, states, and federal departments that is the case. Blacks constitute 11-12% of the nation's population and have 16% of the federal jobs; women make up 51%

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*The original draft of Executive Order 8802 failed to include government agencies but was changed when FDR was pressed by A. Philip Randolph and NAACP Executive Director Walter White.

of the population but hold 34% of the jobs (women constitute 40% of the work force). A 1973 study showed that minority groups made 18.2% of the public employees at the state and local levels. A 1976 survey of 31 of the 50 largest cities concluded that women were not employed in top level jobs to the extent that their numbers would suggest they should be. These overall figures obscure the fact that the employment of women and minorities in government is unevenly distributed across all job categories.

The central problem which affirmative action addresses is the concentration of women and minorities in lower paying, limited status, and dead-end positions. White males monopolized the positions of power and influence in government. The table below presents this problem at the level of the federal government which is by far the best employer of minorities and women. It indicates how poorly minorities and women are represented in the higher levels of the civil service.

Percentage of Minorities and Women Comprising
Selected Pay Grade Ranges

Pay Grades	Minorities	Pay Grades	Women
GS 1-4	28.5	GS 1-6	46.6
5-8	21.1	7-12	23.4
9-11	10.8	13-18	4.5
13-18	6.0		

Adapted from Grover Starling, Managing the Public Sector, (Homewood, Illinois, The Dorsey Press, 1977), p. 409.

And there are other compelling reasons for equal opportunity programs. For example, minorities and women:

- have greater difficulty in entering government at the middle ranges; in career ladder jobs, they usually have to begin at the bottom.
- are largely limited to selective occupations. For example nearly 40% of sanitation and sewage (garbage collection) work is done by non-whites, and 74% of white collar women workers are in clerical occupations
- seldom supervise men and have made little progress in moving into managerial positions. Women and minorities are underrepresented in intellectually demanding jobs. Although 11% of all males in the labor force are managers, only 4% of all women and less than 1% of minorities have similar positions

- seldom have control over budgets or jobs or occupy policy-making positions.
- work primarily in central cities, at state capitols, or in Washington. That is, the further removed women and minorities are from headquarters the fewer are the opportunities available to them.
- have upper level jobs primarily limited to agencies where the clientele is composed largely of women or minorities.
- are required by informal pressures to conform to a white and male cultural standard in the conduct of their work.
- must have better qualifications, more education, and more experience than white males similarly situated to compete successfully for jobs.

These myths about women further illustrate the problem.

Myth*	Reality
1. A woman's place is in the home.	1. Homemaking is no longer a full time job for most women, and half of all women between 28 and 64 are in the work force.
2. Women work for pin money.	2. Single women average 45 years in the work force. Half of all working women work because of a pressing economic need.
3. Women have a higher turnover rate.	3. Those off the job for illness or injury average 2.2 per hundred males per month and 2.6 per hundred females with this difference disappearing when you compare equivalent jobs.
4. Women won't relocate.	4. This is inapplicable to single women, and, increasingly, family patterns are adjusting to life styles which accomodate greater female mobility.
5. Women are not suited for certain kinds of work.	5. There is little evidence to support a difference in manual dexterity. Few jobs require strength and male/female strength profiles largely overlap.

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*Adapted from presentation by Alma Fox, Federal Women's Coordinator Bureau of Mines, 5/25/77 and from Arthur A. Whatley and Nelson Lane Kelley, Personnel Management in Action: Skill Building Experiences, (New York: West Publishing Company, 1977), pp. 68-72.

6.	Women don't want responsibility on the job.	6.	When given the opportunity, women cope with responsibility.
7.	Women should not work in unpleasant circumstances.	7.	Where there is danger, training is the key not discrimination.
8.	Women take jobs away from men.	8.	Most unemployed men are out of work for lack of skill, poor health or due to the structure of employment.
9.	Women prefer men supervisors and men won't work for women.	9.	Supervisor-subordinate conflict is accounted for by reasons other than sex. There is much evidence of successful women supervisors.
10.	Women don't want to be promoted.	10.	The desire for promotion is tied most closely with the chance for promotion. With equal opportunities there is a corresponding desire for promotion among men and women.

A similar set of myths persist about minorities; stereotypes are developed in the attempt to justify discriminatory patterns. Black women, moreover, suffer From both racial and sex-related discrimination. The persistence of patterns which deny equal employment opportunity reflect larger failures on the part of management to promote an ethical and supportive work environment and to incorporate a human resource development perspective into personnel practices.

STUDY QUESTIONS

1. How has the policy for equal opportunity changed over the past century?

2. What is the central problem that Affirmative Action must address Today?

3. What are some examples of discriminatory practices?

4. How do myths about women undercut their employment opportunities?

B. BIAS IN THE EMPLOYMENT PROCESS

At virtually every point in the employment process discriminatory practices may exist and are closely associated with undesirable personnel practices.

1. Recruitment. The passive approach to recruitment or the limiting of efforts to a few prestigeous schools must now be replaced by a broader search to make sure that all of the qualified candidates are given an opportunity to apply. Some agencies are now recruiting for the first time at predominantly black and women's institutions.

2. Announcements. Historically the government has relied upon word of mouth communications to make it known that jobs are available. In many jurisdictions this remains the primary way people learn of vacancies, particularly at middle levels. Because white males predominate at middle management levels, they tend to monopolize this kind of information. Affirmative Action requires that more equitable methods be designed and used to get the best candidates.

3. Application forms. Application forms formerly contained questions that were designed to identify sex and race (including the requirement to submit photographs) as a means for permitting selecting officers to exercise their biases. All such questions and requirements must now be justified as being direcly job-related if they are included on the application forms.

   Except for specific job-related reasons, the following categories of information are illegal pre-employment inquires:

   - country of birth
   - age
   - religion
   - race
   - organizational affiliations
   - marital status
   - dependent children.

4. Testing. Tests which have been validated only on a white and middle class population, or which are not shown to be job-related, can no longer be used as a way of excluding women and minorities. It is hard to understand why testing in government is so widespread and yet validation of tests prior to EEO laws was all but nonexistent.

5. Interviews. What has been said about illegal questions on application blanks extends to interviews. Examples of questions which now must be avoided include:

   - Do you mind working with people from other racial groups?
   - Will you be taking holidays based upon your religious views?

- Do you have to miss work at certain times of the month?
- Is your income supplemental to the household?
- Will your spouse mind if you have to travel on business trips?
- Did you ever receive public assistance?
- Do you enjoy a good Polish joke?
- Are you willing to work for someone younger than you?
- How will you take care of your children while you are working?

All of these practices in the recruitment process are undesirable. They are illegal and they do seriously undercut the employment opportunities of minorities and women, but they are also inept management practices. Recruitment should be active not passive; application forms should be designed to meet the requirements of the job not to sort out applicants based on social classifications; tests should be validated; and interviewing should address areas relevant to the job to be performed. Selection processes should allow the government to choose from the widest field of qualified candidates.

STUDY QUESTIONS

5. Illustrate how bias can enter the recruitment process.

C. WHAT THE GOVERNMENT IS REQUIRED TO DO

Congressional study of governmental performance in the equal employment field in 1971 revealed a continued problem in unrepresentativeness for women and minorities in the federal public work force. The congress and the Public Administration profession were also expressing, at the time, major concern about the ineffectiveness of the government's personnel system. The National Civil Service League, for example, called for the abolition of the United States Civil Service Commission. Two equal employment opportunity problems were cited in the study: 1) the agencies which were resisting becoming equal opportunity employers were themselves investigating complaints against discrimination, and 2) the discriminatory barriers were inherent in the normal operations of government employment.

The 1972 congressional amendments to the Civil Rights Act of 1964 directed the United States Civil Service Commission to review and approve agency Affirmative Action plans on an annual basis and to routinely evaluate agency equal employment opportunity plans. The supervision of state and local equal opportunity programs were placed under the United States Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (USEEOC). The new monitoring system called upon government: 1) to be aware of its employment patterns to ascertain if there is discrimination; 2) to arrange to eliminate discriminatory practices; 3) to seek to root out systemic causes of discrimination; and 4) to put into effect plans designed to rectify the consequences of past patterns of discrimination.

In helping public employers to become aware of their employment practices, the USEEOC required State and local government to make workforce utilization analyses of the total employment process. This is an analysis to determine whether or not minorities and women are employed in each major job classification at a rate consistent with the availability of such persons in the labor market for each job category. To do this agencies were required to institute an internal study similar to the following one.

Step 1. Distribute the work force into the following categories and calculate the percentages of minorities and women in each

- Officials/administrators (e.g. managers and supervisors)
- professionals (e.g., lawyers, dentists, architects, engineers)
- technicians (e.g., graduates of two-year technical institutes, such as draftsmen, dental hygenists)
- protective services (e.g., security guards, police, firefighters)
- para-professionals (e.g., nurses' aids, apprentices)
- office/clerical (e.g., typists, copy machine operators)
- skilled crafts (e.g., carpenters, electricians)
- service/maintenance (e.g., janitors, gardeners)

Step 2. Determine the percentage of minorities (blacks, Hispanics, Asian, American Indian) and women that are available in the work force in each job category. (Suggested percentages are prepared semi-annually by the Bureau of Employment Security.)

Step 3. Compare the percentages of minorities and women in the work force by job category with the percentage profile on the job and determine where significant differences occur.

Step 4. Create a data collecting system to find out at what point in the recruitment process (Announcement, application, references, interviewing, and selection) and what point in the promotion system (training, transfers and promotions performance appraisal, etc.) minorities and women are facing barriers. (For example, forms are provided for recording the distribution of minorities and women who proceed through each step of the recruitment and selection process.)

Step 5. Create a comprehensive plan for systematically correcting the perceived deficiences and call it an Affirmative Action Plan.

Step 6. Implement that plan by assigning specific areas of accountability throughout the organization, instituting requirements and results measurement systems.

This internal study is intended to result in an Affirmative Action Plan which is prepared by each field office and consolidated into an agency-wide plan. The plans for state and local government are forwarded to the United States Equal Employment Opportunity Commission while the plans for federal government departments go to the United States Civil Service Commission. The progress resulting from the Affirmative Action Plans is reported periodically to Congress and the President.

A second result of the internal study is a report on the actual distribution of minorities and women, the EEO-4 which all states and cities are required to complete annually. EEO-4's go to the United States Equal Employment Opportunity Commission. While they are used primarily for internal Equal Employment Opportunity Commission planning, they become extremely important when a grievance is filed alledging that there has been discrimination. An example of a completed EEO-4 form is reproduced below.

EQUAL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITY COMMISSION
STATE AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT INFORMATION (EEO-4)

EXCLUDE SCHOOL SYSTEMS AND EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS
(Read attached instructions prior to completing this form)

APPROVED BY
GAO
B-180541 (R0096)
EXPIRES 12/31/78

SAMPLE

MAIL COMPLETED FORM TO:

A. TYPE OF GOVERNMENT (Check one box only)

☐ 1. State ☒ 2. County ☐ 3. City ☐ 4. Township ☐ 5. Special district

☐ 6. Other (Specify) ______

B. IDENTIFICATION

1. NAME OF POLITICAL JURISDICTION (If same as label, skip to Item C)
ALLSTATE COUNTY

EEOC USE ONLY
A
B

2. Address - Number and Street	CITY/TOWN	COUNTY	STATE/ZIP
10th and Grant Streets	Pittsburgh	Allegheny	PA 15219

C. FUNCTION

(Check one box to indicate the function for which this form is being submitted. Data should be reported for all departments and agencies in your government covered by the function indicated. If you cannot supply the data for every agency within the function, please attach a list showing name and address of agencies whose data are not included.)

	1. FINANCIAL ADMINISTRATION. Tax assessing, tax billing and collection, budgeting, purchasing, central accounting and similar financial administration carried on by a treasurer's, auditor's or comptroller's office and GENERAL CONTROL. Duties usually performed by boards of supervisors or commissioners, central administrative offices and agencies, central personnel or planning agencies, all judicial offices and employees (judges, magistrates, bailiffs, etc.)
	2. STREETS AND HIGHWAYS. Maintenance, repair, construction and administration of streets, alleys, sidewalks, roads, highways and bridges.
	3. PUBLIC WELFARE. Maintenance of homes and other institutions for the needy; administration of public assistance. (Hospitals and sanatoriums should be reported as item 7.)
	4. POLICE PROTECTION. Duties of a police department, sheriff's, constable's, coroner's office, etc., including technical and clerical employees engaged in police activities.
	5. FIRE PROTECTION. Duties of the uniformed fire force and clerical employees. (Report any forest fire protection activities as item 6.)
	6. NATURAL RESOURCES. Agriculture, forestry, forest fire protection, irrigation drainage, flood control, etc., and PARKS AND RECREATION. Provision, maintenance and operation of parks, playgrounds, swimming pools, auditoriums, museums, marinas, zoo, etc.
	7. HOSPITALS AND SANATORIUMS. Operation and maintenance of institutions for inpatient medical care.
X	8. HEALTH. Provision of public health services, out-patient clinics, visiting nurses, food and sanitary inspections, mental health, etc.
	9. HOUSING. Code enforcement, low rent public housing, fair housing ordinance enforcement, housing for elderly, housing rehabilitation, rent control.
	10. COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT. Planning, zoning, land development, open space, beautification, preservation.
	11. CORRECTIONS. Jails, reformatories, detention homes, half-way houses, prisons, parole and probation activities.
	12. UTILITIES AND TRANSPORTATION. Includes water supply, electric power, transit, gas, airports, water transportation and terminals.
	13. SANITATION AND SEWAGE. Street cleaning, garbage and refuse collection and disposal. Provision, maintenance and operation of sanitary and storm sewer systems and sewage disposal plants.
	14. EMPLOYMENT SECURITY
	15. OTHER *(Specify on Page Four)*

EEOC FORM 164, APR. 76

PAGE 1

EEOC COPY

D. EMPLOYMENT DATA AS OF JUNE 30

(Do not include elected/appointed officials. Blanks will be counted as zero)

1. FULL TIME EMPLOYEES (Temporary employees not included)

JOB CATEGORIES	ANNUAL SALARY (In Thousands 000)	TOTAL (COLUMNS B-K)	MALE					FEMALE				
			NON-HISPANIC ORIGIN		HISPANIC	ASIAN OR PACIFIC ISLANDER	AMERICAN INDIAN OR ALASKAN NATIVE	NON-HISPANIC ORIGIN		HISPANIC	ASIAN OR PACIFIC ISLANDER	AMERICAN INDIAN OR ALASKAN NATIVE
			WHITE	BLACK				WHITE	BLACK			
		A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K
OFFICIALS/ ADMINISTRATORS	1. $ 0.1-3.9							14				
	2. 4.0-5.9								1			
	3. 6.0-7.9		5					3	1			
	4. 8.0-9.9		14	1				14				
	5. 10.0-12.9		38	1				2				
	6. 13.0-15.9		26	1				4				
	7. 16.0-24.9		63	1				4				
	8. 25.0 PLUS		5									
PROFESSIONALS	9. 0.1-3.9											
	10. 4.0-5.9							2				
	11. 6.0-7.9		3					18	1			
	12. 8.0-9.9		61	2				29	1			
	13. 10.0-12.9		142	4				27	3			
	14. 13.0-15.9		94	3				7				
	15. 16.0-24.9		27									
	16. 25.0 PLUS											
TECHNICIANS	17. 0.1-3.9		1									
	18. 4.0-5.9		6					5				
	19. 6.0-7.9		26					56	7			
	20. 8.0-9.9		60	3		1		26	2			
	21. 10.0-12.9		125					3				
	22. 13.0-15.9		4									
	23. 16.0-24.9											
	24. 25.0 PLUS											
PROTECTIVE SERVICE	25. 0.1-3.9											
	26. 4.0-5.9		2									
	27. 6.0-7.9		11	6								
	28. 8.0-9.9		20	2				5				
	29. 10.0-12.9		17					5	1			
	30. 13.0-15.9											
	31. 16.0-24.9											
	32. 25.0 PLUS											
PARA-PROFESSIONALS	33. 0.1-3.9											
	34. 4.0-5.9					1						
	35. 6.0-7.9							1				
	36. 8.0-9.9		20	2				6				
	37. 10.0-12.9		33	1				11	2			
	38. 13.0-15.9		1									
	39. 16.0-24.9											
	40. 25.0 PLUS											
OFFICE/ CLERICAL	41. 0.1-3.9		13	1				28				
	42. 4.0-5.9		19	2		1		109	17			
	43. 6.0-7.9		160	7		1		366	34			
	44. 8.0-9.9		151	12				120	17			
	45. 10.0-12.9		36	1				53	6			
	46. 13.0-15.9		2	1				6				
	47. 16.0-24.9		28					11				
	48. $ 25.0 PLUS											

EEOC COPY

D. EMPLOYMENT DATA AS OF JUNE 30 (Cont.)

(Do not include elected/appointed officials. Blanks will be counted as zero)

1. FULL TIME EMPLOYEES (Temporary employees not included)

JOB CATEGORIES	ANNUAL SALARY (In thousands 000)	TOTAL (COLUMNS B-K)	MALE					FEMALE				
			NON-HISPANIC ORIGIN		HISPANIC	ASIAN OR PACIFIC ISLANDER	AMERICAN INDIAN OR ALASKAN NATIVE	NON-HISPANIC ORIGIN		HISPANIC	ASIAN OR PACIFIC ISLANDER	AMERICAN INDIAN OR ALASKAN NATIVE
			WHITE	BLACK				WHITE	BLACK			
		A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K
SKILLED CRAFT	49. $ 0.1-3.9							1				
	50. 4.0-5.9							3				
	51. 6.0-7.9		6	3								
	52. 8.0-9.9		2	1								
	53. 10.0-12.9		6	1								
	54. 13.0-15.9		24	1								
	55. 16.0-24.9		39									
	56. 25.0 PLUS											
SERVICE/ MAINTENANCE	57. 0.1-3.9		1									
	58. 4.0-5.9		34	23				92	42			
	59. 6.0-7.9		33	15				9	1			
	60. 8.0-9.9		3									
	61. 10.0-12.9		19									
	62. 13.0-15.9											
	63. 16.0-24.9											
	64. $ 25.0 PLUS							1				
65. TOTAL FULL TIME (LINES 1-64)												

2. OTHER THAN FULL TIME EMPLOYEES (Include temporary employees)

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K
66. OFFICIALS / ADMIN.		10					15				
67. PROFESSIONALS		3						1			
68. TECHNICIANS		6					15				
69. PROTECTIVE SERV.											
70. PARA-PROFESSIONAL											
71. OFFICE / CLERICAL		106	3				24	1			
72. SKILLED CRAFT											
73. SERV. / MAINT.											
74. TOTAL OTHER THAN FULL TIME (LINES 66-73)											

3. NEW HIRES DURING FISCAL YEAR - Permanent full time only JULY 1 - JUNE 30

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	K
75. OFFICIALS / ADMIN.		23					17				
76. PROFESSIONALS		23	2				11	1			
77. TECHNICIANS		30	1				37	1			
78. PROTECTIVE SERV.		13	4				2				
79. PARA-PROFESSIONAL		9					3	1			
80. OFFICE / CLERICAL		86	6				108	16			
81. SKILLED CRAFT		5									
82. SERV. / MAINT.		12	6				13	10			
83. TOTAL NEW HIRES (LINES 75-82) 404		201	19				191	29			

REMARKS (List National Crime Information Center (NCIC) numbers assigned to any Criminal Justice Agencies whose data are included in this report.)

INCLUDE LIST OF AGENCIES IN FUNCTION 15

CERTIFICATION. I certify that the information given in this report is correct and true to the best of my knowledge and was reported in accordance with accompanying instructions. (Wilfully false statements on this report are punishable by law, U.S. Code, Title 18, Section 1001.)

NAME OF PERSON TO CONTACT REGARDING THIS FORM James Q. Citizen	TITLE Personnel Director
ADDRESS (Number and Street, City, State, Zip Code) 224 Court house Pittsburgh, PA 25219	TELEPHONE NUMBER AREA CODE 412-356-6315

DATE	TYPED NAME / TITLE OF AUTHORIZED OFFICIAL James Q. Citizen	SIGNATURE James Citizen

Note that the form requires:

- a distribution of all jobs into program functions (Part C). Many public jurisdictions, prior to this reporting requirement did not have even a table of organization.
- salaries to be organized by categories and distributed by minorities and women (Part D). Many public agencies were required by this report to create salary classification systems which hitherto had not existed.
- an analysis of both full time and part time employees. This made necessary putting together both career and patronage employment systems, often for the first time.
- special attention to be focused on new employees, which, along with the requirement for an Affirmative Action Plan, started many public agencies thinking about manpower planning.
- Certification of accuracy and completeness of data provided on the reporting form.

In addition to completing an annual EEO-4 Report, the state and local governments Affirmative Action Plan shows how the government anticipates taking planned, aggressive management programming to assure that all persons have equal opportunities in recruitment, selection, appointment, promotion, training, discipline, and related managerial areas. The plan is specifically tailored to each government's work force. Plans, prepared on a departmental basis, contain specific actions with goals, timetables, responsibilities, and resources to meet identified needs. This is a results-oriented program designed to achieve equal employment opportunity rather than simply the collection of information or a mere declaration that discrimination is banned.

The scope of an Affirmative Action Plan must be comprehensive, covering the organization and all of its management practices. The Affirmative Action Plan consists of:

1) defined goals (usually expressed quantitatively--never in quota terms--and often qualitatively--e.g., changes in the work climate to be achieved);
2) specific steps to be taken or methods to be implemented to achieve the overall objective;
3) assignment of responsibilities;
4) an evaluation procedure for periodic review and revision of the plan.

Affirmative Action Plans are designed to provide a mechanism for actually remediating the problems of past and present discriminatory employment practices and are not intended merely to collect information on employment discrimination or to articulate a non-discriminatory policy position. The commitment of the agency or jurisdiction head must be made clear and communicated in the administration of the equal employment opportunity program.

The first part of an Affirmative Action Plan is a statement of general Policy. This is an overall summary of the intention of the organization to eliminate present discriminatory practices and to make adjustments for past discriminatory practices. Typically the Policy is posted in a prominent place, usually in the personnel office, while the plan (often a document in several volumes) is kept in the Affirmative Action office. The Policy statement, which should receive the active commitment of top management, should:

- carry top management's unequivocal approval and support
- apply to all phases of personnel management
- allow for significant input from affected minority groups and women's interests
- make clear the assignment of responsibilities
- establish precise dates for goals to be reached
- make the achievement of goals part of the evaluation made of program managers
- collect baseline data to permit follow-up and to determine the impact the plan has had to date.

The Policy should be communicated both internally to the organization and to the general public. This requires follow up letters or memoranda from executive officials to all employees, articles in agency publications, and frequent bulleting board notices. Job advertising and employment anannouncements must clearly convey the commitment of the agency to obey the letter and the spirit of the equal employment opportunity laws.

In the administration of the program, specific individual responsibilities need to be assigned and the resources and authority need to be made available. Generally this means appointing an EEO Officer or Coordinator, part or full time counselors, instituting training programs, undertaking speical recruitment efforts, and creating an internal advisory group. Effective Affirmative Action also requires reaching out beyond the organization and affecting the supply of potentially available applicants. Government agencies must help to increase the supply of qualified women and minority applicants in the area from which the agency draws its employees.

A major aspect of the Affirmation Action Plan will be in job restructuring and in instituting other mechanisms to facilitate the upward mobility of minorities and women already in the organization. As we have pointed out, the problem is not mainly getting non-white males employed but facilitating their movement into positions of influence in government Job restructuring involves analysis of current classification plans to assure that no arbitrary and discriminatory practices exist. This means scrutinizing entrance requirements to see if they are job-related, making certain that experience requirements are necessary, clarifying promotional lines in career ladders to permit movement, and reviewing and broadening the basis of promotion to coincide with actual job requirements. To accomplish an effective program of Upward Mobility the personnel function must be more closely related to program operations.

STUDY QUESTIONS

6. How does government determine if there is bias in its own employment practices?

7. What is the EEO-4?

8. What does an Affirmative Action Plan include?

9. Why is implementation a key to effective Affirmative Action?

D. SOME SUGGESTIONS FOR ENHANCING EQUALITY IN EMPLOYMENT

From what has been presented thus far, first, it should be clear that opening up the area of employment opportunities is essentially improving the manner in which the government generally executes programs and handles its human resources. Second, formidable barriers to equal employment opportunities continue to be ingrained in racist and sexist attitudes, union insistence on seniority, the branding of Affirmative Action as "reverse discrimination," and the general resistance of bureaucracies to change. And yet, some progress is being made toward making the government an Equal Opportunity Employer.

This module closes by summarizing some of strategies which might be employed to make Affirmative Action programs even more effective.

1. The commitment of the agency's executive officer must be clear and unequivocal in the determination to reach Affirmative Action goals. Providing adequate resources and delegating authority commensurate with the responsibility will demonstrate that commitment.
2. Affirmative Action should take the form of developing the organization's internal human resources and should be presented as an effort toward providing government with the personnel it needs to accountably discharge the organization's primary mission.
3. Civil service regulations should be viewed as tools for institutionalizing Affirmative Action programs rather than excuses for not taking action. Requirements for competitive examinations, the maintenance of registers, or the rule of three make necessary that agencies be clear about what the job requires in skills, how to adjust internal vs. external recruiting, and the necessity to tie together recruitment and selection. The personnel function is a staff support for the achievement of line programs.
4. An effective grievance procedure within the agency will not only allow for the airing of complaints and their resolution but can serve as a means for identifying and rooting out the barriers to equal opportunity within the agency.
5. Full participation by government as well as by individuals is needed in community efforts to eliminate the conditions that give rise to discrimination against women and minorities.

We no longer need to theorize or speculate about whether equal employment opportunity can be achieved. The tools are in hand. Ironically, the task is mainly to avoid nurturing the forces resistant to change and injurious to good personnel practices.

STUDY QUESTIONS

10. How does Affirmative Action relate to human resource development strategies in personnel administration?

11. Illustrate how Affirmative Action Plans can be made more effective.

ASSIGNMENT

The following question should be answered as completely as possible on separate paper. Two copies of your responses should be mailed to the instructor. One copy will be returned to you with the instructor's comments and the other will be retained as part of your course record.

Interview a member of the personnel and/or Affirmative Action department of a public employer. Discuss with that person the administrative changes; reporting requirements; and employee, applicant, and supervisory responsibilities under the Affirmative Action Plan. Compare what you find with the discussion in the module. In particular:

1. *Assess the degree of commitment to Affirmative Action.*
2. *Specify how work on Affirmative Action improves personnel practices in the agency.*
3. *Pinpoint remaining problem areas (e.g., movement of women and minorities into key policy positions in the agency.)*
4. *Prepare a strategy for making the Affirmative Action program in this agency more effective.*

STUDY QUESTIONS

Answer Key

1. a. For most of United States history discrimination was the norm.
   b. Reconstruction was a brief anti-discrimination interlude.
   c. The policy evolved from a reactive to a proactive position by the 1960's.
   d. From a focus on entrance jobs, attention has turned to moving minorities and women into upper level and influential jobs.
   e. Anti-minorities and anti-women myths help create an environment in which upward mobility is difficult.

2. a. They are not fairly distributed across job categories.
   b. They are not in the positions of power at the upper levels.

3. a. Minorities and women are restricted to select occupations.
   b. Few women and minorities supervise men.
   c. Opportunities are primarily limited to headquarters and cities.
   d. Negative myths persist.

4. a. They suggest (inaccurately) that they are less desirable employees.
   b. They suggest that women are not seeking government careers.

5. a. Recruitment can be limited to word of mouth communications.
   b. Recruitment can be done only at a few schools.
   c. Illegal questions on applications forms or in interviews may be asked.

6. a. Congressional investigation established that discrimination was endemic in government.
   b. USEEOC and USCSC monitor government for discriminatory patterns.
   c. Each agency performs a workforce utilization analysis.

7. a. It is an annual survey of the distribution of minorities and women by job categories.
   b. It must be turned in annually be all state and local governments to the USEEOC.

8. a. It details how government will act to eliminate discrimination an the effects that are expected.
   b. It is a result-oriented program with goals, timetables, specific actions and responsibilities, and a statement of commitment.

9. a. Authorization and resources are needed.
   b. Job restructuring and a full analysis of personnel practices are needed.
   c. Personnel must be more closely linked to programming for Affirmative Action to be successful.

10. a. People are respected as important organization resources.
    b. It implies providing opportunities for upward mobility.

11. a. Clear commitments by the executive officer need to be made.
    b. Positive relations with the USCSC need to be established.
    c. An effective grievance procedure needs to be implemented.

PA 848
MANAGEMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCES

MODULE 4:
TESTING

PREPARED
BY:
JEAN ROGERS

UNIVERSITY EXTERNAL STUDIES PROGRAM

Developed by the University External Studies Program and the Graduate School of Public and International Affairs, University of Pittsburgh. Under Contract to The Urban Management Curriculum Development Project, The National Training And Development Service, 5028 Wisconsin Avenue, N.W. Washington, D.C. 20016. Funded by The Office of the Assistant Secretary for Policy Development and Research, U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development.

MODULE 4: TESTING

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MODULE 4: TESTING

KEY TERMS AND CONCEPTS

- Test
- Reliability
- Validity
- Written Tests
- Performance Tests
- Polygraph

INTRODUCTION

Now that Module 2 has given you a general understanding of the selection process, testing methods and how they are utilized within the selection process will be described. This module pays particular attention to the technical procedures imposed upon testing methods as a result of civil rights legislation. This module will, therefore, be of special interest in conjunction with the preceding module on Affirmative Action.

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

At the completion of this module, you should be able to:

1. Describe the factors which should be considered in selecting testing methods.
2. Explain the meaning of the types of test validity, especially as defined with the aid of the courts.
3. Identify and describe the categories of tests that may be used in the selection process.
4. Relate the types of test to situations in which they may be appropriately used.
5. Describe a testing process used in the selection of employees, and analyze it to determine its strengths and weaknesses.

OVERVIEW

Objectives	Tasks	Resources	Evaluation
1. Describe the factors which should be considered in selecting testing methods.	Study Questions 1,2	Module Reading A	Self
2. Explain the meaning of the types of test validity especially as defined with the aid of the courts.	Study Questions 3,4	Module Readings A,B	Self
3. Identify and describe the categories of tests that maybe used in the selection process.	Study Questions 5,6	Module Reading C	Self
4. Relate the types of test to the situations in which they may be appropriately used.	Study Questions 6,7,8	Module Reading C	Self
5. Describe a testing process used in the selection of employees and analyze it to determine its strengths and weaknesses.	Module Assignment	Module Readings and your experience	Instructor Feedback

A. FACTORS TO CONSIDER WHEN SELECTING TESTING METHODS

A test, as defined by Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary, is "a critical examination, observation, or evaluation." (1973, p. 1205) According to this definition, we are all tested daily by our supervisors, friends, and family. Yet, most people continue to perceive a test only as a pencil and paper examination. Tests, however, can be anything from the standard written examiination to the job interview to manipulative or performance tasks or even a physical examination. The specific type of test which is selected for use will depend on a variety of considerations, which are addressed in the following sections of this module.

An examination is a tool for measuring or evaluating a sample of behavior which is thought to be an acceptable basis for the prediction of future behavior. (Stahl, 1971, p. 117) In other words the general rule of thumb is: the factors being measured should be job related, and the examination process should measure what it purports to measure. Such a general rule is helpful in gaining an understanding of the overall requirements, yet, it is not enough. Testing is one of the "hotest" personnel issues, and a more detailed discussion of factors to consider when selecting testing methods will assist the student in understanding the complexities of the testing issue.

There are nine basic considerations which should be kept in mind when selecting testing methods. Each factor is of particular significance and each of them should be present if the organizations goal is to develop effective testing methods.

1. Context: Context refers to the objective of selection. The position for which individuals will be choosen (via external hire, transfer, or promotion) must be determined before the means to evaluate the applicants suitability can be established. The tool (test) utilized to achieve the selection (goal) of a production worker will be different than the tool utilized to select an employee for an accounting manager's position.

2. Criteria: This factor relates to the identification of the basic necessary skills, knowledge, and abilities which an applicant must possess in order to perform the indicated task. In other words, testing methods will be determined on the basis of what is to be measured.

3. Objectivity: Objectivity is needed to insure that non-job-related factors such as race, sex, religion, etc. are screened out of the testing method.

4. Reliability: Tests should prove reliable. That is, they should be consistent. Individuals taking the tests on different occasions should receive essentially the same scores each time.

5. Organization and Standardization: Selection methods should be formalized. The testing program should be approved and sponsored by top management. Also, standardized policies and procedures should operate at all times to assure equity and to assist in achieving validity.

6. Available Labor Market: The pool of available labor will affect selection methods. If the market is tight and there is a limited number of qualified applicants, employers may be forced to lower selection standards. It then follows that, if the tests actually measured job-related criteria and if the standards were initially set at the minimally acceptable level and subsequently lowered, the organization must implement training procedures to improve the skills of the marginally qualified individuals they are forced to hire. If on the other hand, the labor market is loose and large numbers of workers, including those more highly skilled, are available, testing standards may be raised (as long as they are kept in line with job-relatedness) to avoid testing large numbers of applicants.

7. Cost of Possible Testing Methods: Cost utility is a factor which must also be considered. The tests used in the selection process should be no more costly than that which is necessary to produce effective results. An expensive battery of tests combined with extensive interviewing procedures for a messenger position would not be utilizing the organization's resources as effectively in this instance as simpler less costly methods which also produce the desired results.

8. Face Validity: The test chosen to assist with the selection process should have face validity. That is, the procedures should appear sound. Being technically adequate is not enough; those who observe or participate in the process should perceive it as plausible .

9. Test Validity: Test validity refers to the extent to which a test actually measures what it purports to measure. At this time perfect validity has not been achieved; however, reasonable validity for some tests has been established. Without information on a tests validity, an organization would be doing just as well to flip a coin on each applicant.

STUDY QUESTIONS

1. Place a check mark in front of the following examples which you think could be used as a test.

    a) proof-reading a letter
    b) swimming 150 yards
    c) reading a book
    d) interviewing a long-time resident of your neighborhood
    e) taking your own temperature

2. What problems if any, might occur if an organization did not consider any one of the preceding factors in its selection of testing methods? [Answer this question for each factor taking them one at a time.]

B. PROBLEMS WITH TEST VALIDATION

Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 was an attempt to end discrimination in employment practices. Since that date, many legislated and adjudicated regulations and guidelines have appeared to further define employment practices. The following Amicus Curiae (friend of the Court) brief submitted by the American Psychological Association in King v. Georgia Power presents a concise statement on the problems of utilizing and validating tests. Special attention should be paid to the sections on The Role of Aptitude Tests in Employee Selection (the "touchstone" or basis for utilizing tests) and the types of and principles for validation.

IN THE UNITED STATES COURT OF APPEALS
FOR THE FIFTH CIRCUIT

No. 71-3447

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA,
Plaintiff-Appellant and Cross-Appellee,

v.

GEORGIA POWER COMPANY, ET AL.,
Defendants-Appellees and Cross-Appellants.

No. 71-3229

CHARLES KING, ET AL., AND WILLIE MOREMAN,
Plaintiffs-Appellants,

v.

GEORGIA POWER COMPANY, ET AL.,
Defendants-Appellees.

ON APPEAL FROM THE UNITED STATES DISTRICT COURT FOR THE
NORTHERN DISTRICT OF GEORGIA, ATLANTA DIVISION

BRIEF FOR THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE OF THE DIVISION OF INDUSTRIAL AND ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY, AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION, AS *AMICUS CURIAE*

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Washington, D.C. 20036
Of Counsel

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INTEREST OF THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE OF THE DIVISION OF INDUSTRIAL AND ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY (DIVISION 14), AMERICAN PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSOCIATION*

The Executive Committee of the Division of Industrial and Organizational Psychology is the elected governing body of a professional association of approximately 1100 members. This Division is one of the specialized professional associations within the American Psychological Association (APA) which is the major professional psychological association in the United States. The stated objectives of the APA as set forth in its by-laws include the desire to advance psychology as a science and as a means of promoting human welfare through the endorsement of high standards of scientific and ethical conduct and the dissemination of psychological knowledge to promote the public welfare.

A traditional matter of interest to the Division's membership is the use of psychological tests and other measurement devices in employee selection and utilization. Members of Division 14 who work in this aspect of the profession are involved in problems of test development and selection, validation procedures, and the operational use of tests in employee selection, placement, and promotion.

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* This brief is filed pursuant to the direction of this Court dated July 26, 1972.

Neither the Executive Committee, nor the individual members of the Committee have any direct interest in the outcome of this litigation.

INTRODUCTORY STATEMENT

Although psychologists did not invent tests,[1] they have focused upon them in many forms and in many situations from educational, to military and employment contexts. As early as 1890 James McKeen Cattell described tests he was using in an effort to demonstrate a relationship between test scores and performance in college. By 1901 this effort was far enough along to have produced data on correlations between mental ability tests and academic performance at Columbia University.[2] Shortly thereafter, research turned to problems of employee selection, so that by 1923, M. Freyd was able to offer an extensive review of the requirements for competent test validation.[3]

In 1954, committees of the APA, the American Educational Research Association, and the National Council on Measurement in Education collaborated to prepare a professional summary of recommendations for the use of test developers and publishers.[4] Thereafter, a joint committee of members of the three associations consolidated, modified, and revised these publications in an attempt to present working guideposts and ideals to those involved in

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1. Even Plato had advocated military aptitude tests centuries before they were considered by Galton and Cattell.
2. HULL, APTITUDE TESTING (1928).
3. Much of this analysis is still quite sound, focusing on such basic concerns as job analysis, sound treatment of statistical data, and the selection of an appropriate criterion of performance against which to compare the test results. FREYD, M., Measurement in Vocational Selection: An Outline of Research Procedure, 2 J. PERS. RES. 215-49, 268-84, 377-85 (1923).
4. Technical Recommendations for Psychological Tests and Diagnostic Techniques, PSYCH. BULL. 1-38, 51 (Supp. 1954); Technical Recommendations for Achievement Tests (American Research Assoc. Wash. D.C., 1955) reprinted in BUROS, O.K. TESTS IN PRINT 367-91 (1961).

preparing and distributing tests. The culmination of this effort was the APA Standards For Educational and Psychological Tests and Manuals.[5]

Contemporaneous with these endeavors were the legal developments in the areas of civil rights in general and fair employment in particular. The public and legislative furor which surrounded the decision of a hearing examiner for the Illinois Fair Employment Practices Commission in Myart v. Motorola Co.,[6] finding certain employment tests to be culturally biased, led to the enactment of Section 703(h) of Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964. This section permits the utilization of "any professionally developed ability test provided that such test, its administration or action upon the result is not designed, intended, or used to discriminate because of race, color, religion, sex or national origin."[7]

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5. American Psychological Association, Standards For Educational and Psychological Tests and Manuals (Wash., D.C., 1966) (hereinafter APA Standards).
6. The opinion is reprinted at 110 Cong. Rec. 5662-64 (1964). For a more detailed discussion of the decision and the legislative history it provoked see Wilson, A Second Look at Griggs v. Duke Power Company: Ruminations on Job Testing, Discrimination, and the Role of the Federal Courts, 58 U. VA. L. REV. 844, 852 (1972); Note, Developments in the Law - Employment Discrimination and Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, 84 HARV. L. REV. 1109, 1123 (1971).
7. Section 703(h) provides in pertinent part:

> (h) Notwithstanding any other provision of this subchapter . . . nor shall it be an unlawful employment practice for an employer to give and to act upon the results of any professionally developed ability test provided that such test, its administration or action upon the results is not designed, intended or used to discriminate because of race, color, religion, sex or national origin.

42 U.S.C. §2000e-2(h).

Both the general language of the provision and the legislative history surrounding its adoption reflect the then-current, and rather simplistic, understanding that general aptitude tests were inherently useful to an employer in selecting "good" employees.[8] In an attempt to amplify the meaning of Section 703(h), in 1966 the EEOC issued its initial Guidelines on Employment Testing Procedures.[9] This document, as revised in 1970, begins by articulating an endorsement of properly utilized tests but immediately reflects the Commission's impression that tests are frequently used inappropriately.[10]

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[8] See Wilson, supra, note 6 at 857.

[9] EEOC, Guidelines on Employment Testing Procedures (August 24, 1966). These Guidelines were revised and superseded in 1970. EEOC, Guidelines on Employee Selection Procedures (revised) 35 Fed. Reg. 12333, 29 C.F.R. Sec. 1607. All references to EEOC Guidelines in the remainder of this brief will be to the 1970 revision.

[10] The "Statement of Purpose" of the 1970 Guidelines provides:

> (a) The guidelines in this part are based on the belief that properly validated and standardized employee selection procedures can significantly contribute to the implementation of nondiscriminatory personnel policies, as required by Title VII . . . .
>
> (b) An examination of charges of discrimination filed with the Commission and an evaluation of the results of the Commission's compliance activities has revealed a decided increase in total test usage and a marked increase in doubtful testing practices which, based on our experience, tend to have discriminatory effects. . . .
> It has also become clear that in many instances persons are using tests as the basis for employment decisions without evidence that they are valid predictors of employee performance. . . .

29 C.F.R. Sec. 1607.1(a), (b).

As noted above, the Executive Committee of Division 14 is interested in the promotion of the highest standards of technical competence in employment testing. Since the decision of the United States Supreme Court in Griggs v. Duke Power Co.,[11] it has become clear that judicial, legislative, and administrative actions will have a pervasive impact on actual day-to-day practices in the field of employment testing. For example, despite professional pleas for test validation dating back more than half a century, many industrial and governmental users of psychological tests never validated their use of these selection devices. However, following Griggs, test users must either abandon their testing programs or attempt to demonstrate their legality if they disproportionately reject applicants in groups protected by Title VII. Earlier, a poorly-conceived or defectively implemented selection program was the subject of professional criticism; now, it may be against the law.

The Griggs decision was the first attempt by the Supreme Court to address the highly complex problem of employee selection procedures. Although it agreed with the EEOC Guidelines' recommendation that tests be "related" to job performance[12] it did not enter the thicket of validation, or even adopt or recommend any specific method or standard for measuring whether tests are in fact "related" to the job.[13] Therefore, the burden of explication and implementation of the Supreme Court's ruling has fallen on the lower federal courts.

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[11] 401 U.S. 424 (1971).
[12] Id. at 431.

Because the parties[14] in the present case have placed squarely before this Court the issue of supplying the working standards for establishing validity or "job relatedness" of employment testing programs, it is highly likely that this Court's decision will have a significant impact on future judicial determinations and consequently on the pragmatic value of personnel testing as an employee selection device.

The Executive Committee of Division 14 believes that the record in this proceeding is both confused and confusing. Moreover, the parties on each side of this controversy, as advocates, have framed their arguments on some of the most crucial issues in terms which tend to overstate, or understate, the legal and psychological principles which should govern the resolution of these issues. For this reason, the Committee will attempt to reduce the confusion on some of these issues by offering its concept of sound principles which should be considered in evaluating a testing program or validation study.

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[13] The Court did note the deference to be accorded the provision of the 1966 EEOC Guidelines which required that employment tests be "job related," because this interpretation squared with the Court's review of the legislative history of the Act. However, the Court made no attempt at that time to evaluate the persuasiveness of the administrative and technical provisions of those Guidelines or the 1970 revision. As the Court explained in conclusion:

> From the sum of the legislative history relevant in this case the conclusion is inescapable that the EEOC's construction of Sec. 703(h) to require that Employment tests be job related comports with congressional intent.

401 U.S. at 436.

[14] The Psychological Corporation, as Amicus Curiae, has also pressed for a determination of this issue. (Brief at p. 16).

The positions taken by the Committee are not for the purpose of endorsing or challenging the arguments made by any party, although it does realize that its recommendations may reflect on the merit of portions of those arguments.

Notwithstanding its independence from the interests of any party, this brief does advocate certain points of view:

(a) valid employment procedures will promote equality;

(b) procedures of known or knowable validity will do so more effectively than will procedures of unknown or obscure validity;

(c) the technology which has been developed for the validation of employment tests can serve to make properly developed and used tests effective vehicles for achieving equality of employment opportunity;

(d) there are certain basic levels of professional competence which should be maintained in validating tests, however, there is no single method of validation to the exclusion of others;

(e) the attainment of professional acceptability in validating tests is not an absolute or an "all-or-nothing" proposition.

(f) the courts should adopt a standard for establishing whether tests are reasonably related to a person's capability to meet the job needs of the employer; such a standard should demand meaningful proof of relationship to legitimate employer needs yet be flexible enough to permit the continued utilization of standardized selection devices--devices which may offer an effective method of ensuring that employment is obtained on the basis qualification for the job or jobs in question rather than on the basis of subjective, and possibly biased, judgments.[15]

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[15] One of the first EEOC research reports on the issue of testing and fair employment concluded:

> Authorities in the field of psychological testing have suggesting several proposals for mitigating the effects of *unintentional* types of discrimination against minority groups. We have examined the various proposals and have concluded that careful selection and administering of tests and validation of the testing instrument within an industrial setting, may be the most desirable means to achieve the goal of full utilization of the nation's human resources.

Wallace, P., Kissinger, P., Reynolds, B., *Testing of Minority Group Applicants for Employment* 3, in PERSONNEL TESTING AND EQUAL EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITY (EEOC, Wash, D.C. 1970) (emphasis in original).

ARGUMENT

I.

THE ROLE OF APTITUDE TESTS IN EMPLOYEE SELECTION

The basic aim of any selection process is to meet an employer's workforce requirements by drawing upon the available labor supply. This aim can be broken down into the fundamental components of identifying an employer's business needs and seeking those persons who can meet them. If the purity of this simplistic analysis could be maintained, many of the knottiest problems of equal employment would be resolved, because decisions which rely upon biased, subjective, or irrelevant applicant evaluations are also decisions which do not focus on the true business needs of the employer.

The definition of the employee attributes which an employer "needs" will vary, depending upon the nature of his business. A company with high safety requirements based upon responsibility for public safety may focus heavily upon consistent adherence to safety rules and practices. An employer faced with significant workforce turnover has a legitimate need to seek employees who will remain on the job. For other employers, safety and tenure may be of less importance, while sheer volume productivity and speed are important to meet narrow profit margins. Volume may be sacrificed for quality control in some businesses. Still others may invest significant time and money in training programs which are necessary to job proficiency;

their obvious interest is in finding employees who can complete and benefit from relevant training programs.[16]

These brief examples demonstrate that different employers legitimately focus upon different individual or combined employee behaviors which are relevant to their business operations. Therefore, in utilizing personnel selection devices, including tests, each employer may be seeking different information about prospective employees. This is precisely what the Supreme Court intended when it noted that "any tests used must measure the person for the job and not the person in the abstract."[17] Moreover, this concept of a relation to job performance and the actual needs of the employer formed the basis for the Supreme Court's definition of the term "business necessity":

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[16] The EEOC *Guidelines* recognize this necessity for latitude in the selection of appropriate criteria:

> (3) The work behaviors or other criteria of employee adequacy which the test is intended to predict or identify must be fully described; . . . Such criteria may include measures other than actual work proficiency, such as training time, supervisory ratings, regularity of attendance and tenure.

29 C.F.R. Sec. 1607.5(b) (3). See Davis v. Washington, ___F. Supp. ___, Civil No. 1086-70 (D.D.C. July 31, 1972); Buckner v. Goodyear Tire and Rubber Co., 339 F.Supp. 1108, 1115 (N.D. Ala. 1972); Spurlock v. United Airlines, Inc., 330 F.Supp. 228, 235 (D. Colo. 1971).

[17] *Griggs*, 401 U.S. at 436.

> The touchstone is business necessity. If an employment practice which operates to exclude Negroes cannot be shown to be related to job performance, the practice is prohibited.[18]

When an employer turns his focus from the needs of his business to non-business-related bases for employment decisions he no longer meets the legal requirement of Griggs, or the basic goal for sound personnel selection.

It should be noted that the Supreme Court's definition of business necessity in the context of employee selection as "related" to job needs is distinguishable from the use of this term in other contexts where lower courts have spoken in terms of the employer's burden to demonstrate that "no acceptable alternative policies or practices" are available.[19] To be sure, if an employer can demonstrate that his current selection procedures assess whether his new hires are able to absorb training, thereby reducing the time and cost of training, or increase productivity or reduce turnover, he has demonstrated that his employment procedures are truly related to achieving his operational objectives. It is precisely this reasonable approach to determining the needs of a business which must be the guidepost for applying the business necessity concept in the context of employee selection.

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[18] 401 U.S. at 431 (emphasis added).

[19] E.g., United States v. Bethlehem Steel Corp., 446 F.2d 652, 662 (2d Cir. 1971); Robinson v. P. Lorillard Corp., 444 F.2d 791, 798 (4th Cir. 1971); Local 189, United Papermakers & Paperworkers v. United States, 416 F.2d 980,989 (5th Cir. 1969), cert denied, 397 U.S. 919 (1970). See p. 36 for a discussion of this concept in the context of the EEOC Guidelines.

Once the employer has determined what his relevant needs are in terms of business operations, he should turn to a personnel selection procedure which attempts to predict an applicant's capability to meet those needs. When he takes this step, there are three basic questions which are to be answered in evaluating the relevance, and legality, of his procedure:

(a) Is there any reliable relationship between the information an employer obtains through his employment tests and the job-related business considerations (e.g., training time, productivity) he is seeking to accommodate?

(b) If so, what is the extent of that relationship, and how useful is it?

(c) What use should be made of the relationship, i.e. how should it be applied in making decisions about individual applicants?

These are the questions an employer should ask when reviewing his selection program, and they are the same questions to be resolved in the process of validating that program.

II.

VALIDATING EMPLOYMENT TESTS

A. THE AVAILABLE TECHNIQUES

In the context of employment testing, to "validate" a test or any other selection tool is merely to conduct research or to investigate its use. The crucial point to remember is that any

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20. For an aberrant application of the business necessity concept see Johnson v. Pike Corp., 332 F. Supp. 490 (C.D. Cal. 1971. For critical comment on the aberration see Wilson, supra, note 6 at 850; 85 HARV. L. REV. 1482 (1972). For a commentary concerning the legislative history of Section 703(h) and the Griggs Court's failure to utilize the strict business necessity test offered in Local 189, supra note 19, see Wilson, supra note 6 at 854 n. 62.

test is not valid or "invalid" per se, but must be evaluated in the setting in which it is used. It is the way a test is utilized in the employment process which determines whether it is producing meaningful results for the employer.[21]

In conducting validation of a test or test battery, there are several different research techniques which can be utilized to ascertain the validity of their current or proposed use.

One is criterion-related validity, which may be either predictive validity or concurrent validity. Predictive and concurrent validity are distinguished by the difference in time between obtaining scores on the test and obtaining scores or ratings on the job-related criterion (e.g., measures or productivity, absenteeism).

If applicants are tested, hired, exposed to the job or relevant training in question, and then rated on the criterion, the employer has utilized the predictive validation technique. If employees who are on the job are tested and rated on the criterion (e.g., supervisory ratings of proficiency) without any meaningful interval between the two, the concurrent validation technique has been employed. Both concurrent and predictive criterion-related studies quantify the relationship between test scores and the criterion which has been selected as relevant to the employer's needs.[22]

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21. A rather complete list of definitions of terms utilized in discussing the validation process are contained in the Appendix to this brief. Where appropriate, they have been amplified to focus on the particular problems discussed in this proceeding.
22. As noted at pp. 9-10 supra, the criterion or criteria with which test scores can be compared can vary depending upon the job-related measure which is important to the employer (e.g., quality of production, training time, tenure, speed, or some combination thereof).

Other research techniques are used to evaluate content and construct validity as those terms are mentioned in the EEOC *Guidelines*[23] and discussed in the APA Standards.[24] Essentially, they rely upon professional evaluations or inferences which support the conclusion that a particular skill, knowledge, or other characteristic is measured by the test in question.[25]

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[23] 29 C.F.R. Sec. 1607.5(a).

[24] APA, *Standards*, Sections C3, C7. See Appendix to this brief, for a definition of each term.

[25] In many situations it is possible to develop a test which is itself a sample of the kinds of performance required on a job. An example frequently offered is the dictation-typing test which reproduces an important aspect of a stenographer's job. A dexterity test which reproduces motions actually required in an assembly operation may also serve as an example. Such tests are said to have content validity, that is, they sample actual job content with satisfactory validity. No coefficient is necessary to demonstrate the validity of such tests.

In other situations, the test may measure a trait deemed necessary to learn or to perform certain tasks but does not directly assess performance on these tasks. (e.g., measuring psychomotor ability rather than actual performance of production line tasks involving removing defective products from a moving conveyor belt). In such a situation, construct validation would be appropriate, particularly where criterion-related validity may not be feasible. Criterion-related validation is not feasible where important aspects of performance are so intangible that they cannot be measured competently, or where there is severe restriction of range on test scores for the sample in the study, or where the number of cases is too small. The point is that a well-developed hypothesis of a relationship between a specified kind of performance and a specified trait, based on careful background study of job, situations, and prior research may well be superior to an inadequate criterion-related study.

B. THE PROFESSIONAL AND LEGAL STANDARD

At this point, it is appropriate to relate these technical definitions of "validity" to the Griggs standard of "job-related" selection devices. From a technical and legal point of view, a test, test battery, or other assessment device is "job-related" if either of two sets of conditions are met:

(1) there is competent evidence of a useful degree of criterion-related validity arrived at by comparing test or other scores against a criterion which has been shown by the employer to be legitimately based in his business needs; or

(2) there is competent evidence of content or construct validity in the test being studied and evidence from a careful analysis of the job that the skill or knowledge (content) or trait (construct) being measured is in fact an important part of the job or logically related to successful employee performance of that job.

If either of these conditions are met, the employer has demonstrated that the selection device he is using, or contemplates using, is "job-related" in that it provides information which reasonably enables him to evaluate "the person for the job and not the person in the abstract."[26]

C. PRINCIPLES FOR SOUND CRITERION-RELATED VALIDATION

Because the issues in this case focus upon the technique of criterion-related validation, the remaining discussion will be directed primarily to the principles to be considered in presenting the "competent evidence" which is necessary to establish that type of validity. This does not necessarily imply a preference for

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[26] Griggs, 401 U.S. at 436.

that technique for establishing the validity of employment tests. To the contrary, as noted above, a study demonstrating content or construct validity based on skills or traits relevant to the job may be far more satisfactory than a criterion-related study using questionable criterion measures or a small number of cases in the study sample.[27]

The following analysis will discuss four basic considerations involved in using employment tests and subjecting them to criterion-related validation: (1) selecting tests and research procedures to validate them; (2) reviewing the context in which the study will be done; (3) selecting the criteria against which to compare test performance and collecting the data; and (4) interpreting the data obtained in the study.

1. Choices of Tests and Research Procedures

a. Choices of tests, test batteries, and other assessment techniques (including the assessment of job performance) should be based on a knowledge of organizational needs and careful job analysis.

Such study of organizational problems is necessary for the sensible designation of the kinds of employee behavior or performance on the job that needs to be predicted. In some situations it may be crucial to predict how well or how quickly a new employee can learn a task that is prerequisite to the performance of job duties. In other settings, worker persistence or motivation may be of prime concern; therefore, the appropriate criterion measure may be attendance or survival on the job. In still others, it may be more important to predict quality of level of production after on-the-job experience.

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[27] See discussion in note 25 *supra*.

An analysis of jobs or organizational needs provides information and insight needed to designate the important aspects of performance and training and to develop or decide upon methods of measuring them. It also provides clues from which a knowledgeable test user can designate the kinds of applicant characteristics likely to predict these important work-related behaviors. The principle is that any measures, be they tests, application blanks, interviews, production records, ratings, or other assessment techniques used in a validation study, be chosen on the basis of careful study of situations and jobs.

Such study gives rise to meaningful and defensible hypotheses about characteristics important for effective employee performance. Validation is most likely to be fruitful where hypotheses are formulated and measures selected on the basis of thorough study.

b. The methods of gathering and analyzing data chosen for validation research should be consistent with the expected or recommended use of the results.

If tests are to be used solely for preliminary screening, it would be inappropriate to administer tests for validation only to those who have passed all other employment hurdles; rather, validation data should be collected at approximately that point in the selection process where tests will be used in practice.

If a battery of tests is to be used, the method of data analysis should be consistent with the use to be made of the scores in actual employment practice. For example, if "unit weights" are to be used in practice (i.e., if test scores are to be added without giving one test any more weight in forming a composite score than is given to any other test), it is inappropriate in the study to use a multiple correlation technique which tells how valid the composite scores would have been if, for example, scores on one test were to be weighted (multiplied by) .47, another weighted 2.16, and still another given a negative weight, -1.05.

A multiple cutting score requires that an applicant pass each test in a battery. This approach is called "non-compensatory" since scoring high on one test will not compensate for a small deficiency on another. This is a common and defensible operational practice particularly where one or more of the tests in the battery seeks to measure a threshold or important requisite for job performance (e.g., exceptional motor reflex speed may not compensate for poor judgment or spatial relations capabilities in a surgeon). Another commonly used approach is multiple correlation, where there are many ways to arrive at the same composite score--even a zero score on one test may not prevent an applicant from having an acceptable composite score if his score on another test with a heavy weight is high enough. The multiple correlation approach is therefore called "compensatory." The point is that it would be inappropriate to use the composite score technique for validation where the multiple cutting score requirement is used in practice, unless the purpose of the study were to consider adoption of the new technique if it proves sound.

c. Employment tests are most often used to make predictions; if validation procedures use concurrently available criteria only, the validation report should emphasize that fact.

Although predictive validity and concurrent validity are different, so that the one is not equivalent to or an estimate of the other, both tradition and the EEOC Guidelines allow the use of concurrent validity statements in lieu of predictive validity statements. This merely reflects the serious practical difficulties often encountered in attempts to conduct predictive studies. Nevertheless, if and when predictive studies become reasonably possible, they should be done to firmly establish the predictive nature of employment devices.

Where a predictive study is done, the time elapsing between the test administration and the collection of criterion data should be reported; if either test or criterion data are collected over a period of time, beginning and ending dates should be specified.

d. Standardized procedures should be followed in administering and scoring tests.

Important aspects of test administration procedure, such as time limits or instructions given to those tested, are ordinarily prescribed in the test manual. Occasionally, an organization may have reason to develop its own standard procedures. In either case, validity information should be based on test data obtained in a standardized manner consistent with actual or recommended test use. Standard procedures may also include standard policies, such as policies governing the eligibility for testing, the time or circumstances under which tests will be offered, etc.

2. Interpretations of Criterion-Related Validity

a. Statements about validity should refer to the validity of particular interpretations or of particular types of test use.

It is incorrect to use the unqualified phrase "the validity of the test." No test is valid for all purposes or in all situations without reference to the context in which it will be used. Any study of validity is pertinent to only a few of the possible uses of, or inferences from, the test scores. A given test may be valid as a predictor of performance on some jobs but not on others, it may be valid for predicting some aspects of performance but not for others, and it may be valid for predicting an aspect of performance for some people (e.g., apprentices) but not for others (e.g., journeymen). Therefore, the scope of the study (jobs, sample, performance sought to be predicted) should be stated.

It is also incorrect (although convenient) to state that a use of the test "is valid." Such language implies that validity either exists or does not; it obscures the fact that validity is found in varying degrees.

b. Validity coefficients refer to the situations in which they are obtained.

This does not mean that validity cannot be generalizable across an industry, or across a multi-unit employer. It means that the validity coefficient should not be generalized to populations with characteristics, situational context variables, or measurement criteria different from those in which it was obtained.

For example, tests for which claims of content validity are made may deal with job content (e.g., typing from dictation) common to many situations, and the claims of content validity may therefore have wide generality. In criterion-related validity statements, to which this principle specifically is directed, the extent of background research in reasonably similar situations (e.g., jobs and applicant populations are comparable) may be convincing enough, and the difficulties in conducting local validation great enough (e.g., small local samples), that the test user will be justified in making generalizations of validity. However, when possible, validation should be done in the context in which the results are to be used.

c. The sample employed in a validity study and the conditions under which testing is done should be consistent with recommended test use and should be described sufficiently for the reader to judge whether the reported validity is pertinent to the situation in which the tests are actually used.

Characteristics of the people being tested, and of the general conditions of testing, help to define the situation to which a statement of validity applies. Therefore, a validity report should provide information such as:

-- a description of variables which might be related to the quality tested, such as age, sex, socio-economic status, ethnic identification, or level of education; any selective factor determining the composition of the sample should be indicated;

-- if the validation sample is made up of records accumulated or maintained haphazardly, the report should so state; validity data based upon incomplete records may not be representative of either employees or applicants or any other specifiable population;

-- the description of the sample used in research should include information about the reasons for any eliminated cases.

d. A test user should state the reasons for any cutting score that might be used as a basis for decisions.

In situations where a cutting score is adopted, it should be designated with care. It should not be so high, as a rule, that the range of scores among those selected is too restricted to permit evidence of validity to be found in future samples which will be used for contemplated criterion-related studies.

Whatever the level, there should be a defensible reason. The cutting score might be defended in terms of the predicted level of performance desired, in terms of the minimum score necessary to assure an adequate flow of new employees, or in terms of levels of mastery. The recommendation is that test users avoid purely arbitrary cutting scores that can neither be explained nor defended.

3. The Use of Criterion Measures

a. Criterion measures should be described completely and accurately; whenever feasible, the description should call attention to important aspects of performance that the criterion measure does not describe and to irrelevant factors likely to affect it.

The usefulness of a statement of criterion-related validity is limited by the adequacy of the criterion used. For most employment situations, the best criterion measure is probably one that can be evaluated in terms of content validity, such as work sample or other achievement measure interpreted in terms of degree of competence rather than in terms of relative standing. Supervisory ratings, which are appropriate and more commonly used, should be described in terms of the information they attempt to obtain and the method in which such information is to be collected.

b. A criterion measure should be evaluated in terms of evidence of its validity.

Investigations should be made of potential sources of criterion contamination. For example, the length of time a supervisor has known different people may influence his ratings inappropriately, or the ages of various machines may contaminate production figures. Also, the basis for judgments of the relevance of criterion content should be clearly set forth. The relevance of the criterion is ordinarily established with reference to business operational needs and job analysis information, which identify crucial aspects of employee behavior and present arguments about the adequacy of the criterion in reflecting them.

c. Criterion measures should be obtained independently of test scores; the report should indicate precautions taken to avoid contamination of the criterion by knowledge of test performance.

This principle applies primarily to ratings as criteria. Where the criterion is based on judgment, the report should state whether the test data were available to the rater or were in any other way capable of influencing the judgments. If there is a likelihood of such influence, the report should clearly indicate that reported validities may be spuriously high.

4. Statistical Analysis of Data

a. Basic descriptive statistics should be reported for the validation sample, including the number of cases, measures of central tendency and variability for both test and criterion, and descriptions of the shapes of the distributions for both measures.

Validity studies based on fewer than fifty cases, or on samples with unusual distributions of measures, are likely to be more unreliable. A general rule (other things being equal) is that the more cases available the more reliable the interpretation.

Descriptive information should be interpreted also in terms of its similarity to known or expected characteristics of the applicant population. If mean performance is markedly different in the sample from the mean performance of applicants generally, the validity information may not be applicable. If variability is different such as frequently results from restriction of range in test scores when current employees form the sample, corrections of obtained correlation coefficients may be made to yield a more realistic statement of validity of predictions within the broader range of applicants.

b. Methods of data analysis in criterion-related validation should employ statistical procedures that are well known and readily interpreted.

Uncommon statistical techniques should be explained with references to sources of complete descriptions of them and their derivations. Statements of validity should ordinarily consist of (a) one or more correlation coefficients of a familiar type, (b) descriptions of the efficiency with which the test separates criterion groups, (c) expectancy tables, or (d) charts that graphically illustrate the relationship between test and criterion.

Neither the APA Standards nor the EEOC Guidelines is "wedded" to any particular approach for presenting data analysis. The discriminant function analysis is one example of the possible methods under category (b) above.

Where expectancy tables or charts are used (i.e., where the percentage expected to be superior within a given score range are estimated), expectancies should be based on essentially equal numbers of cases. It is ordinarily not good practice to have, for example, 40% of the cases in a low scoring group, 50% in a middle scoring group, and only 10% in the high scoring group. It is not likely that exact thirds would be obtained, but where three score categories are to be used, the score divisions should approximate thirds as closely as the data will permit.

The use of conventional statistics might also imply the use of conventional levels of confidence in making tests of statistical significance. The purpose of this principle is to ensure communication between the researcher and the reader of his report; where statistical tools are used that are well known or that can become well known to the reader, the reader has a better opportunity to understand and to evaluate the research. Similarly, where conventional tests of significance adopting conventional levels of confidence are reported, there is less likelihood of misunderstanding or misinterpreting reports of validity.

The APA Standards do not include recommendations concerning appropriate levels of significance. In short, the 5% level is an arbitrary convention. It has never been a part of professional standards to insist on a specific level of confidence; however, when one departs from the conventional standard, he should ordinarily have a reason which can be stated in advance of the analysis. Under some circumstances, for example, one might need a predictor so badly or have such severely restricted range of scores on predictor or criterion that he will decide to accept any finding significant at the 10% level; under other circumstances, the cost of using a test that might later prove invalid may be so great that the investigator will insist on at least a 1% level. The number of cases available might enter into the judgment; with a large number of cases, nearly any relationship is significant at the conventional 5% level and a more stringent requirement may be set, whereas the confidence level may be more lenient if the number of available cases is quite small.

This tradition is recognized and followed in Section 1607.5(c) (1) of the EEOC Guidelines: "The relationship . . . must be statistically significant. This ordinarily means that the relationship should be sufficiently high as to have a probability of no more than 1 to 20 to have occurred by chance."[28] Certainly, there will be *a priori* reasons acceptable to the profession and to the Guidelines for a departure from the conventional level; it is not rigid. Moreover, nothing either in professional practice or in the Guidelines suggests that a 6% level could not be accepted, at least tentatively, even where the *a priori* thinking anticipated requiring the 5% level. It is certainly preferable to use an employment procedure such as a test that is valid at the 6% level than to rely on an alternative approach to selection, such as an interview, which has not been validated at all.

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[28] EEOC, Guidelines on Employee Selection Procedures, 29 C.F.R. Sec. 1607.5(c) (1) (emphasis added).

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Moreover, it is not true that the 5% level of confidence is too stringent. The general literature in psychological testing and every textbook in the field provides multitudes of examples of test-criterion relationships that meet or exceed this standard.

c. If the test scores for the sample in the study form a distribution markedly restricted in range, where correlations are computed they should be estimated for groups of actual applicants with different distributions.

Such corrections should not be made where differences between the means in the sample and the means of the expected applicants are so different as to suggest differences in parent populations, nor should such corrections be made so as to suggest statistical significance where there was no such significance in the original, uncorrected correlations. Where estimates of validity are based on such corrections, the original coefficients, distribution characteristics, and statistical procedures used should be clearly described.

Where the obtained coefficient is significant, the corrected correlation is a more clearly accurate description of the relationship to be expected in more heterogeneous applicant groups. The corrections, however, need to be carefully evaluated, and research reports should therefore provide full information about any such corrections that are made.

d. When the employment context permits, there should be an independent validation study for each ethnic, sex, or other identifiable subgroup for which there is reason to suspect that validity might differ; where such studies are done, independent statements of validity should be reported for each subgroup, or the report should show that no significant differences were found.

This principle focuses on the concept of "differential validity," which suggests that currently used employment tests may have different predictive values for separate minority populations. It may be that the tests in question are predictive for one subgroup and not predictive for another, or that the test scores are predictive for both but consistently under- or over-predict the performance of one group. When such a test is used on both groups, the question of test bias or fairness is presented.

Perhaps the clearest statement of this phenomenon of "unfair" discrimination which may be produced by a test or testing program was offered by Dr. Robert M. Guion: "Unfair discrimination exists when persons with equal probabilities of success on the job have unequal probabilities of being hired for the job."[29]

Because of the equal employment opportunity implications of this phenomenon, the EEOC Guidelines require independent validation, where technically feasible, for separate minority groups.[30] The question has also generated a considerable amount of professional debate on the issue of differential validity based upon minority group performance on standard employment tests.[31] Without attempting to resolve the conflict in opinion as to whether differential validity is an established scientific phenomenon,[32] it is sufficient to note that its fair employment implications could be significant enough so that research on separate groups should be done where the employment environment (e.g., available minority samples of adequate size) permits.[33]

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[29] Guion, R., Employment Tests and Discriminatory Hiring, 5 INDUS. REL. 26 (1966).

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[30] 29 C.F.R. Sec. 1607.4(a).

[31] See, e.g. BYHAM, W. & SPITZER, M., THE LAW AND PERSONNEL TESTING, 128-46 (1971); Darlington, R.B. Another Look at "Cultural Fairness," 8 J. EDUC. MEASUREMENTS, 71-82 (1971); Einhorn & Bass, Discrimination in Employment Testing, 75 PSYCH. BULL. 261 (1971); Thorndike, R. L., Concepts of Culture-Fairness, 8 J. EDUC. MEASUREMENTS 67-70 (1971); APA Task Force on Employment Testing of Minority Groups, Job Testing and the Disadvantaged, 24 AM. PSYCH. 637 (1969).

[32] An APA sanctioned report on the problem concluded:

> This hypothesis, that test scores have different meanings for different subgroups, requires extensive research for confirmation or rejection; existing evidence is inadequate to determine whether aptitude tests actually discriminate unfairly because of their different validities from one subgroup to another.

APA Task Force on Employment Testing of Minority Groups supra note 31, at 641.

It must be recognized, however, that few organizations will be able to do adequate studies of differential validity. Considering that minority groups may number about 10% of an applicant population, and that roughly fifty cases are necessary for criterion-related validation, it follows that the hiring over the period of a validation study would have to reach about 500 people for a given job. Few organizations hire at that rate within a reasonable period of time.

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[33] The EEOC Guidelines recognize the practical difficulty of conducting such research in every employment context. Therefore, validation done on a majority work force or sample is acceptable evidence of validity pending the feasibility of separate studies. 29 C.F.R. §1607.5(b)(5).

Differences in rates of rejection are frequently cited, as if these differences were evidence of unfair employment practice. Actually, the differences in rates of rejection are not relevant to the issues of fairness or of differences in validity. Different rates of rejection may have their origins in highly active recruiting or other affirmative action activities which generate large numbers of marginal applicants who otherwise would not apply. Only a thorough study of possible differences in validity can provide evidence for the interpretation of observed differences in impact.

Finally, the general viability of differential validity as an expected phenomenon could be affected by a recent, extensive six-year study, funded by the Ford Foundation,[34] and conducted jointly by the Educational Testing Services, Princeton, New Jersey, and the United States Civil Service Commission. A report of the results of this study and a discussion of their implications for governmental regulation was part of that project. In general, the conclusion reached was that where a differential validity study is not technically feasible, and where the tests have been chosen on the basis of a careful job analysis, a reliable relationship found for whites will usually hold true for blacks.

III.

ADDITIONAL ISSUES RAISED IN THIS CASE

A. EARLIER VALIDATION

The District Court's opinion[35] notes that an earlier study conducted by the Company resulted in a change in cutting scores. The study was "conducted in the manner prescribed by professional psychologists," and "determined that there was a positive relationship between test scores and job performance ratings." The results of the study or an explanation of its methodology are not contained in the opinion.

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[34] Campbell, J.T., An Investigation of Sources of Bias in Job Prediction (Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey, 1972).

[35] Finding of Fact #57.

If the results of the earlier validation were positive (i.e., if a statistically significant relationship were obtained), then there would seem to be no clear reason for the Hite study beginning in 1968. If there were no signficance in these results, then a newer study could be justified either because of the accumulation of more data (a larger sample) during the intervening period or because new predictors were being validated. In part the point is raised because of the allegation in the Brief for Plaintiffs-Appellants[36] that the Hite validation study involved "technique-shopping."

The question raised could be a critical one. A validation study should be planned in advance, and the plans should include the plans for the preferred method of analysis. If in fact the later validation was a new effort to find significance in the same data that had earlier failed to yield significance, or if in fact the later study did try several different techniques, then the significant new results should be verified by a repetition of the study on another sample.

The logic is similar to that of cross-validation. Each method of analysis makes different assumptions about reality in the population; therefore, each method of analysis captializes on different aspects of the data at hand. It is entirely possible that one particular method is indeed a better description of reality and that significance found by one method rather than others is a reflection of that fact.

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[36] Brief for Plaintiffs-Appellants, pp. 43-44.

It is also possible, however, that one method yielded significance simply by capitalizing on chance errors within the sample and that similar results would not be characteristic of the total applicant population. To make a judgment as to which of these plausible explanations is better, it would be beneficial to obtain more data from a second sample. If the findings are repeated, then one may confidently accept them; if not, they should be rejected as spurious.

B. COMPARISIONS OF METHODS OF ANALYSIS

The District Court's opinion seeks to compare correlational analysis against discriminant function analysis. Several points need to be made about this discussion. (1) The phrase that formulas for computing correlations are "based upon norms for the general population" has no technical meaning, nor do the formulas rely upon a "plotted bell curve" for either test or criterion. (2) Fisher's tables do indeed make assumptions about normal distributions. However, the formula upon which these tables are built is "robust," i.e., yields results which are "only inconsequentially affected by a violation of the underlying assumptions."[37] (3) The fact of restriction of range does indeed make it more difficult to detect a significant relationship since it reduces the size of the correlation. However, where the two groups are categories on a scale, as in this case, the results of discriminant function analysis differ from those of an estimate of multiple correlation only in rounding errors and differences in the details of the tests of significance used; they are theoretically identical.

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[37] Boneau, C. A. The Effects of Violations of Assumptions Underlying the t Test, 57 PSYCH. BULL. 49-64 (1960). See definitions in the Appendix.

C. THE EEOC GUIDELINES

The decision of the District Court, the briefs of the parties, and the brief, amicus curiae, of the Psychological Corporation variously have challenged the severity or defended the persuasiveness of the EEOC Guidelines.

The nature and propriety of the Guidelines as a yardstick for measuring the validity/legality of employment tests would appear to be a question of interpretation and enforcement rather than content. As noted earlier, the Supreme Court in Griggs commented favorably upon the "job related" concept embodied in the Guidelines.[38] This interpretation and deference makes sense in terms of theory and practice.

The harder questions arise when the totality of sections in those Guidelines is offered for consideration. In general, the wording of the provisions is tempered with qualifying phrases such as "where technically feasible"[39] and "ordinarily."[40] The reality of operating situations and the state of the science demands that there be this leavening of idealized standards of competence with the acceptance of present possibilities.

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[38] As noted earlier, these were the 1966 Guidelines. See note 13 supra.

[39] "(W)here technically feasible, a test should be validated for each minority group with which it is used . . . ." 29 C.F.R. Sec. 1607.4(b).

[40] "The relationship . . . must be statistically significant. This ordinarily means . . . ." 29 C.F.R. Sec. 1607.5(c) (1).

In other situations, there seems to be less rationality, such as the requirement that the employer assume the burden of proving a negative by demonstrating the "unavailability" of suitable (and presumptively predictive) alternative selection procedures.[41] Certainly, if an employer has used two or more alternative selection devices which are equally predictive of job-related applicant capabilities and one has a less disproportionate rejection impact on minorities, it would be appropriate for him to use that technique as opposed to the one with a higher rejection rate. However, if there is no clearly established alternative, he should not be forced to abandon his valid selection procedure while conducting a court-imposed hunt for another procedure. If pressed too strictly, this provision of the _Guidelines_ would move well beyond anything contemplated in _Griggs_ and seriously strain the intent of Title VII.[42]

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[41] 29 C.F.R. §1607.3.

[42] Such an interpretive or enforcement tack would also seem inappropriate in light of the unanswered questions about the existence of differential validity for separate minority groups. See discussion at pp. XIII.4.40-43 _supra_. _But see_ EEOC Decision No. 72-0708, 4 FEP Cases 437, 438 (December 27, 1971) (an admittedly job-related test declared unlawful for continued use when the employer had not produced separate validation "for each minority group with which it is used.")

These are the considerations which a court must weigh in ruling on the persuasiveness, or binding effect, of the *Guidelines* as a "workable set of standards" for interpreting Title VII. Similarly, these considerations determine whether adoption of a given provision would "express the will of Congress"[43] or constitute "blind adherence"[44] to overzealous administrative interpretation of the statute.

For these reasons, it would be appropriate for this Court to view the EEOC *Guidelines* as a valuable source of principles for its use in evaluating this and similar cases. However, in doing so, it should reaffirm that the EEOC *Guidelines* are simply that--*guidelines* which express the views of an administrative agency and which must be tempered by the Court's responsibility for ensuring that the purpose of Title VII and the goal of equal employment opportunity are preserved by providing *reasonable*, *job-related*, standards for employers' personnel actions.[45]

CONCLUSION

The foregoing analysis has attempted to provide this Court with an independent discussion of test validation as a means of ascertaining the appropriateness of employee selection procedures. Not all the issues are straightforward, but that is to be expected when the courts are faced with the task of giving substantive meaning to general legal standards which involve technical expertise.

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[43] *Griggs*, 401 U.S. at 434.

[44] Espinoza v. Farah Mfg. Co. ___F.2d ___, 4 FEP Cases 931, 5th Cir. 1972); accord. H. Kessler & Co. v. EEOC, ___ F2d. ___ 4 FEP Cases 1065, 1067 (5th Cir. 1972).

[45] See *Developments in the Law*, *supra* note 6, at 1193.

The primary purpose of this brief has been to offer a framework for judging employment tests and validation studies. In doing so, it has emphasized that employers' personnel needs vary, methods for validating selection tools vary, and a certain degree of flexibility within reasonable professional standards is essential to evaluating selection techniques. The principles discussed above, like the EEOC Guidelines, should not be viewed as absolutes. Nor are they strict checklists for a short course in writing an acceptable validity study.

In reviewing a testing program or validation study, it is not appropriate to treat each principle or Guideline provision as an independent test to be "passed" or "failed." Instead, the evaluation might well follow the principle of the "compensatory" model of employee selection--if the study falls short on some few principles, but achieves required standards on others and generally fulfills the intent of the relevant standards, it can be judged competent on its overall effect despite some of its shortcomings.

Respectfully submitted,

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STUDY QUESTIONS

3. What is meant by validity of a test?

4. Explain the various types of validity.
    a. Predictive validity:
    b. Concurrent validity:
    c. Content validity:
    d. Construct validity:

C. TYPES OF TESTING METHODS

1. Written Tests

Paper and pencil tests are one of the most frequently used selection methods. There are five types of paper and pencil tests that are (or have been) used as part of the selection process.

a) Intelligence and mental ability tests.

"Intelligence and mental ability tests attempt to sample intellectual or mental development or skills." (Glueck, 1974, p. 199) The use of such tests assumes that a minimum level of mental ability is necessary for the position when an aptitude or achievement test may be more suitable. Unfortunately, these tests are often found as a general applicant-screening device and are not job-related. Examples of such tests are the Otis Quick-Scoring Mental Ability Test and the Wonderlic Personnel Test.

b) Interest inventories.

These tests are structured to determine individual preferences in vocational areas. Once vocational interest is determined, the relative motivation to perform in various types of positions is inferred. The two most widely utilized inventories are the Strong Vocational Interest Blank and the Kuder Preference Record. These tests are normally used by guidance counselors to assist students in identifying and planning for vocational possibilities and not for job selection and placement.

c) Test batteries and organizational tests.

The Civil Service examination given by the U.S. government is a test battery--a group of tests structured to meet predetermined objectives. Such tests are utilized to test and process large numbers of applicants for specific types of positions. When using broad devices the employer should keep in mind that batteries of tests need to be validated for each organization and that good record keeping procedures are needed to assist in determining the usefulness of such tests in hiring.

d) Aptitude and ability tests.

"These tests and simulations are designed to measure or simulate the ability of persons to perform at jobs requiring special skills or abilities. (Glueck, 1974, p. 201) These tests are most frequently utilized to determine clerical ability, manual dexterity, and mechanical skills. Examples of such tests are the Minnesota Clerical Test, the Purdue Pegboard and the O'Connor Finger and Tweezer Dexterity Test.

e) Personality inventories and tests.

The use of personality tests in the selection process has received much criticism. Such tests are validly used by specialists in assessing mental health, but the question remains regarding their usefulness in predicting job success. "Personality inventories or tests are instruments and mechanisms used to determine attitudes, beliefs, and personalities of applicants." (Glueck, 1974, p. 202) Two basic questions must be answered when considering using personality tests in the selection process: First, will this test identify and provide data on job-related criteria? Second, will it measure the identified criteria correctly and uniformly? At this time the answer to these questions appears to be negative. In the selection process the most commonly used self-reporting personality inventory is the Minnesota

> Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI). The MMPI is also widely used for assessing the severity of symptoms in psychiatric patients. "...it has been criticized for the unreliability of some of its scales, and even its ability to discriminate between normal and abnormal individuals has been questioned." (Glueck, 1974, p. 202) This criticism must cast serious if not insurmountable doubt on its use for selection purposes. The use of many of these pencil and paper tests continues today despite the fact that legislative and judicial rulings and guidelines have made their use more complex and more costly to employers. If a test is to be utilized the following suggestions may make their use more effective.
>
> 1. "Test results should be weighed in the context of the applicant's employment history."
> 2. "Make sure the test is right for the job in question."
> 3. "Be aware of the differences in what different tests try to measure."
> 4. "Use tests that have both general and specific norms."
> 5. "Have as high a selection ratio as possible."
> 6. "Try the test on present employees before adopting it."
> 7. "Seek advice of consultants in test selection."
>
> (Glueck, 1974, p. 203)

Written tests are tools which can assist in the selection process, but they must not be viewed in isolation They provide, at least, just one more piece of data which in itself is not sufficient to make a sound selection decision. The test information, therefore, must be considered with the other data generated during the selection process (e.g., from the interview, application, references). In this respect the entire selection process constitutes the test with the written test as only one part.

2. Other Selection Methods or Tests

There are examinations other than the pencil and paper type which take place during the selection process. Requirements for citizenship, licenses, and physical examinations are also specific tests which the applicant must pass. An evaluation of education and experience (interviews), performance tests, oral tests, and standardized qualification inquiries are four major factors found in most selection processes which also constitute tests.

a) The evaluation of education and experience is a test which is generally considered job-related. Such information is usually obtained through resumes and applications, and it is discussed and analyzed in an interview. The interviewing situation then becomes a testing process. Objectivity and validity are generally overlooked during the process; this presents a major problem since the interview is a testing situation and, accordingly, requires objectivity and validity. However, the interviewing process does present problems in establishing objectivity and validity for these reasons:

- The evaluation process during an interview is difficult to standardize.
- It is difficult to ensure the equal performance of each of the interviewers.
- It is difficult to construct a rating guide for the many possible combinations of education and experience.
- The variability and qualitative factors of education and experience are difficult to standardize and assess.
- Experience and education not covered in the rating standard can be relevant. (Stahl, 1971, p. 123)

b) Performance tests are also considered job-related. They may be either actual samples or demonstrations of the work to be performed, various forms of board and block tests, job-miniature tests, or mechanical assembly tests. They generally involve a demonstration of motor reactions and do not require writing or speaking.

c) Oral tests are often confused with the interviews. Oral tests are somewhat different in that they are carefully planned and constructed to obtain information on the applicant's knowledge in predetermined areas. "A basic assumption underlying the use of such a test is that a real-life situation is created in which the individual can react spontaneously and in doing so reveal temperament, oral skill, and character attributes of which he is perhaps unaware but which the observer can rate and interpret." (Stahl, 1971, p. 124) In oral tests the parameters of the situation are structured to resemble the work situation. The applicant responds to "this-is-the-problem/please-solve" directions.

d) Qualification inquiries or reference checks are an examination and validation of information provided by the applicant. They generally serve as a final check or test after the applicant has successfully passed the preceeding tests. Refer to section or reference checks in Module 2 for more detailed information on structuring reference checks.

3. New Developments

The polygraph is a device which was originally developed to assist in police investigations. It is an instrument which records changes in breathing, blood pressure, pulse, and skin response and which plots these on paper. Neutral and stressful questions are asked to determine a response made under pressure. Some organizations are now utilizing the polygraph as a test during the selection process in place of a reference check. One of the reasons for its use is cost. An extensive reference check may cost $100.00 while a polygraph tests costs only $25.00. Another reason is timing. The polygraph is faster than the reference check, and some employers will make an immediate selection decision based upon the applicant's success or failure on the test.

There are many problems with using the polygraph as a test. First, and most important, there is significant evidence that it is neither reliable nor valid. The machine reports only a change in response to stress, and most employers will readily admit that for most applicants the whole selection process is stressful and testing situations may be even more so. Also, there are objections to the use of the polygraph on the basis that it is an invasion of the applicant's privacy and a violation of the Fourth Ammendment to the Constitution. Its use could also lead to self-incrimination, which is a violation of the Fifth Amendment. A humanistic approach to management would preclude its use on the basis that it insults the dignity of the individual. The polygraph is not a simple and scientific solution to the problem of assuring objectivity, validity, and reliability in the testing situation. Until the issue of polygraphs is tested in federal courts or until federally legislated requirements are passed, state regulations will control its use. Some states, through lack of legislation, have left the issue to be resolved between the organization and the individual. Other states limit its use to certain purposes or restrict its use to defined categories of individuals. For example, in Pennsylvania Police prison guards and other occupations involved in security are exempted from the polygraph prohibition.

SUMMARY

All organizations make selection decisions and in most instances the decision is based upon the results of a test or a series of tests. Selection tools are designed to assist the administrator in making a specific selection decision and assuring the organization that it will have the appropriate personnel to attain its goals. Reliability, objectivity, and validity in the selection process are necessary if the organization wishes to effectively service its consumer group.

STUDY QUESTIONS

5. Describe the various categories of tests which may be used in the selection process.

6. What are the moral issues involved with personality tests?

7. Assuming that tests have meet all validation requirements, what tests would you use for the following situations and why?

   a) Filling a secretarial position with the following duties:

      typing, shorthand, filing, making appointments, answering telephones.

b) Filling a manufacturing position with the following duties:

feeding small wire through a cable and capping cable; security clearance necessary.

c) Selecting an individual for promotion to a comptroller's position with a medium size (500 employees) public service agency with the following duties:

supervising an accounting department staff of 20, determining budget projections and cost objectives, monitoring costs, preparing financial statements and cost summaries (quarterly reports).

d) Selecting an individual for promotion to a commercial artist's position with the following duties:

designing and producing graphic displays, brochures and posters; illustrating publicity materials; discussing, assessing and interpreting service use requests.

8. Discuss how you have responded to post-testing situations. List your fears, beliefs, perceptions and feelings. Has this module changed the way you preceive and will approach testing in the future? How?

D. OPTIONAL READING

The following two articles are recommended as optional readings. They are interesting, and you will find that they provide some additional reinforcement to the discussions already presented in this module.

- "The "Correct' Use of Personality Tests: A View from Industrial Psychology" by Christopher Orpen. (Published in Public Personnel Management, May-June, 1974, pp. 228-229.)

  "Examination Planning." (Published in Personnel Report #721, Public Personnel Association, pp. 12-17.)

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THE "CORRECT" USE OF PERSONALITY TESTS: A VIEW FROM INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY

CHRISTOPHER ORPEN

The moral issue involved in personality tests.

During the past 10 years, especially in industry, personality testing has been increasingly questioned on moral as well as technical grounds. However, until recently industrial psychologists have largely ignored the moral criticism, and have instead occupied themselves with the technical business of making their tests more accurate and valid. As a result, the time is long overdue for setting down some ethical "rules" that will be helpful to the practical businessman when he decides to employ personality tests.

In essence, the ethical and moral criticisms usually boil down to the following two questions: Do personality tests constitute an unjustified invasion of the applicants' right to privacy? Do these tests unfairly discriminate against persons who compared to most of society are culturally and educationally deprived?

Privacy

Although the first issue is complex and depends to a large extent on what is meant by "privacy," industrial psychologists are agreed on a number of points. In the first place, they are agreed that the use of personality tests which have been *shown* to be of dubious validity cannot be condoned. Along with their critics they believe that personality testing constitutes an unwarranted invasion of privacy when it involves assessments that are more suitable to the psychiatric clinic than to business, or inquires into matters that are irrelevant to job success.

For instance, they agree that asking questions about a person's sex life, when it has no established bearing on how well he does his job, is unethical. As an industrial psychologist, I would not question individuals outside of the research setting about issues that have not been demonstrated to interfere with (or contribute to) effectiveness at work. I would be reluctant to ask an applicant questions about the happiness of his home life because there is no concrete evidence that an unhappy home life impairs efficiency at the office. Indeed, some men may throw themselves into their work as a compensation for their frustrations at home. Ethically, tests are not given to satisfy the curiosity of the industrial psychologist (despite what many people think); they are simply given so that he can make better predictions of future performance.

On the other hand, industrial psychologists are agreed that a company has a right to inquire about those aspects of a person which *have* been shown to be related to job success. Most would feel, for instance, that a firm is justified in inquiring about an individual's personal attitudes, since these have often been shown to be related to job performance. For instance, I would not hesitate to ask such questions as, "Do you

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enjoy mixing with large groups of people?" because responses to this question have been shown to relate to success in certain kinds of jobs. The key issue is one of relevance to job success.

Besides restricting themselves to the testing of relevant issues, industrial psychologists agree that, as far as possible, job applicants who are given personality tests should have a right to know the results of these tests and what has been concluded from them. Provided these two points are borne in mind I feel (along with most employers) that it is the right and responsibility of the company to identify and select only the most able of the applicants, not only because it is in the company's interest but because the correct placement of workers is fairer to *them* as well. Looking objectively at the available evidence, it is in the applicant's longterm interest that he is assessed by psychological tests of proven validity rather than by other methods which have not been proven.

Cultural Disadvantages

With regard to the second question, the industrial psychologists reply that they are improving their tests all the time so that they will not discriminate against disadvantageous or deprived persons. They point out that a lot of the criticism of personality tests is really directed at the *misuse* of tests, such as an excessive reliance on single test scores or the administration of inadequately validated instruments—both practices condemned by industrial psychologists.

This point is especially important when considering the question of discrimination, which usually comes up when untrained selection officers employ tests that have been standardized on one population group to an individual from another. In this regard, a South African selection officer using an intelligence test that had been developed for Whites on a Coloured applicant who had not enjoyed the same educational opportunities would be guilty of misusing the test. It is one of the most important, but frequently overlooked, principles of personnel testing that the individual applicant must come from the larger group used in the development of the norms, or averages, of the test.

On a personality test for example, the profile of the lowerclass Coloured applicant should be compared to the average profile of the 1,000 or more lowerclass Coloureds who have also been given the test, not with that of 1,000 or more upperclass Whites. To make comparisons possible—and to avoid the problem of discrimination—industrial psychologists frequently develop different tests for different groups. In South Africa, the National Institute for Personnel Research (NIPR) has developed separate norms and tests for the various racial groups in the country. If the "correct" test is used and an applicant is compared only with his own group, much of the discrimination complaint is removed.

In short, when only relevant and "correct" personality tests are used, and an atmosphere of trust is created between the industrial psychologist and the applicant, the ethical criticisms of privacy and discrimination lose most of their sting.

Examination Planning

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In the civil service and merit system context an examination is the combination of all methods used to determine who will be appointed and who will not. An examination has many parts, each of which must be considered as one test in the total battery or examination. Most recruiting techniques and restrictive entrance requirements are parts of the examination just as truly as are written tests and interviews. Veterans preference provisions and residence requirements are also parts of examinations, although they are not based on merit.

The planning of an examination requires that the objective of the examination be known and that each kind of test under consideration be evaluated both in terms of its own merits and in terms of its contribution to the validity of the entire examination. It is possible for the parts to work against each other rather than to supplement each other.

This subject is so broad and so complex that it can only be outlined here, with comments on a few of its aspects.

Written tests and interviews are preeminent among the tests used, and these two kinds of tests are the subject of most of the literature on selection. In keeping with the policy announced in the preface and followed thus far, aspects of the subjects already well covered in the literature will only be outlined, while those that have been given insufficient attention will be covered in more detail.

Job Analysis

The plan for a good examination must start with a careful job analysis, although an informal job analysis conducted by an examiner may be better than none. He can get some information from class specifications, allocation standards, budget material, classification technicians, line personnel and others, but *get it he must*. He must translate the tasks into performance requirements or job requirements, and then into the kinds of tests that will measure the requirements. This demands actual observation of the work.

Reduce the Number of Performance Requirements

The job analysis usually produces a volume of requirements that is totally unmanageable, but fortunately it will be found unnecessary to test for all of them. The list of requirements can be cut by applying several criteria to them, including:

1. There may be no need to test for an ability when
   a. almost any applicant has the ability to an adequate degree
   b. only a few people in the class need the ability and employees with it are always available
   c. the ability can be acquired easily or quickly
   d. the ability is assured by the possession of some higher or more inclusive ability which will be measured
   e. training is available to those who do not have the ability
2. The ability is relatively unimportant and there are many others that are more important
3. There are no tests that are suitable for this use, or the existing tests
   a. lack demonstrated reliability or validity for any reason, including the fact that they can be faked
   b. are unacceptable in a competitive situation because of lack of public confidence or acceptance
   c. are unfair to some well qualified applicants for any reason, ranging from loss of security to cultural bias.

Current Conditions and Needs

The testing needs identified by the job analysis are usually those that are called for in what we consider a normal situation—when the labor market will provide somewhat more qualified applicants than are needed, but not a significant surplus.

If there is a critical shortage of applicants the examination can be simplified. It may be reduced to fewer than the usual number of parts if the remaining parts screen out most of the least competent applicants. If all other applicants must be offered appointments there is no need for sophisticated means of ranking the successful competitors.

When there is a gross surplus of applicants, an attempt should be made to reduce the number of competitors by means of tests which are relatively inexpensive to use, yet are fair and have validity. Entrance requirements are seldom a good way to do this. Raising education or experience requirements above the level demanded by the job often lowers validity, since it tends to limit competition to trained and knowledgeable applicants who have been unsuccessful in the occupation for other reasons. The best device for the purpose is often a written test, but only when a valid one is available.

When the skill and knowledge requirements for a class are so low that almost anyone can meet them there is usually a surplus of applicants. In this situation, tests of ability may only serve to select the over-qualified, who are not the best employees. Better selection can result from tests of motivation, personal satisfaction or even of need which may result in motivation.

How Can the Performance Requirements Be Measured?

At this point in the planning process some judgments and decisions must be made regarding the methods of measurement that are to be used. What are the most effective and practical means of measurement *for this class in this situation?*

These judgments must be based on the nature of the requirements. If the greatest needs are for occupational knowledge, can the knowledge be best measured by written test, performance test, academic levels reached, or some combination of methods? If some or all of the knowledge must be acquired after appointment, what training is available and what aptitudes or academic skills are needed to master it? Can these learning abilities be measured by written test, from biographical data, or by what other means? If personality traits are important, how can they be best evaluated?

The general outline of the examination is based on these judgments. It will describe the recruiting plan, any education or experience or other prerequisites to application, and the written, oral, performance and other tests that will be used.

Recruiting

The importance of recruiting as part of the selection process is too easily overlooked. It is a truism to say that an organization's employees can be no better than its applicants. It is less obvious but equally true that better recruiting results in a higher ratio of applicants to appointments, which in turn improves the effective validity of the tests used.

The literature on recruiting is extensive. Alden L. Brock (3), F. Arnold McDermott (8) and many others have written on general recruiting practices and policies. Several, including McCrensky (7) and Taylor (14, p. 12) have written on specialized aspects of recruiting. Their work need not be repeated here, but several points are worth emphasis.

1. As recruiting brings in more well qualified applicants and fewer poorly qualified ones, it serves as a valuable selection device.
2. Broadcast and institutional advertising no doubt serve a long-range purpose, but pin-pointed and personalized recruiting is needed for most examinations.
3. There must be a stage in the development of an examination plan at which the location and characteristics of the better potential applicants is reviewed. This review should involve not only the personnel people, but the line departments and often outside agencies such as professional, trade and union organizations. They can all assist in identifying the best segments of the labor market and the means of reaching them. In some cases the recruiting should be pin-pointed to avoid a surplus of unneeded applicants.

Screening Devices

The selection of eligibles is partially accomplished by hurdles that applicants or potential applicants must clear, but which carry little or no weight in determining the rank order of eligibles.

Recruiting. The first hurdle and the one with the greatest effect is the recruiting effort, discussed above. Even the best qualified person will not apply if he has not heard about the examination or if the job does not sound attractive to him. He will hesitate to apply if for any reason he feels that he would not be accepted either in the examination or on the job.

Recruiting literature should adequately describe the jobs involved and the working conditions, to serve as a basis for self-screening among those to whom they are not attractive.

Education and Experience. Minimum requirements as to education and experience have been used almost universally as screens. Experience re-

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quirements are usually used with discretion in promotional examinations, although the sometimes excessive requirements cause some of the best employees to go elsewhere for advancement. It is difficult to justify the practice of requiring experience in open examinations for unskilled jobs, as is frequently done to avoid the need to examine for the job requirements. The person with experience may be the least suitable.

A requirement that specific school courses have been passed can save unnecessary testing for technical work such as professional accounting, in which the courses are well standardized. However, it should not be assumed that the person with a college degree would be superior as an accountant to one who had learned accounting in a business or junior college. A college degree does not give assurance of either a general academic background or of any social graces. Requirement of an eighth grade or high school diploma gives little assurance of literacy. Better assurance is gained by having an application or questionnaire filled out under observation.

Licenses. Most public agencies have classes performing work for which some kind of license or registration is required by law. Licenses can usually be renewed indefinitely without re-examination, which means that a current license does not assure current competence. The value of such licenses in personnel selection should be reviewed.

In some cases public agencies are expressly subject to the licensing laws, and in other cases the use of licensed personnel is optional with the agency but it has chosen to make the license a requirement. In either case the agency is using the licensing procedure as part of its selection process and has become a party to it.

Just as a personnel agency has no right to use tests that are not valid, it has no right to use a licensing examination as part of its selection without assuring itself that the licensing examination is valid and fair. If this assurance is not available, it should eliminate the licensing examination and do its own testing.

If a licensing examination has been imposed by law on the personnel agency, that agency should require evidence of its validity. If acceptable evidence of validity is not to be had, the agency is obliged to demand and obtain exemption from the licensing law.

Arrests and Convictions. There are practical reasons for investigating the criminal records of applicants. It would not be prudent to employ sex offenders in some institutional classes or persons with long records of petty thievery as janitors for night work. It would be equally irrational to say that any person with a conviction or prison record should automatically be barred from public employment, or that an arrest not followed by a conviction should be disqualifying. A realistic policy must take into account many factors, and most decisions must be made on the merits of the case rather than by following rigid rules. A practical and equitable policy in regard to arrests and convictions is illustrated in Appendix C to Employment of the Disadvantaged in the Public Service (14).

Physical Requirements. Strength, agility, height, weight, vision and even "officer-like bearing" requirements are commonly imposed, but many of them are needlessly high. Courts have struck down such requirements as ability to lift 40 pounds for a woman to qualify as clerk in a liquor store, and are looking with suspicion at some height requirements for law enforcement and fire fighting classes. The practical utility and the effect on recruiting efforts of these demands should be reviewed and many of them should be modified.

Medical Examinations. Some kind of screening for good health and freedom from disabling defects is felt needed to protect employers and workmen's compensation and retirement systems. Rigid application of standards, however, has proved to be undesirable. They tend to eliminate many applicants who could give many years of valuable service. The job demands can be described with some objectivity, but the ability of an applicant to meet them is more judgmental. Medical officers can contribute most by assisting in making placements which are consistent with the applicants' medical or physical limitations.

The value of psychiatric screening for sensitive classes is controversial. Some studies have produced evidence of value and others have shown that a good panel interview is at least as effective in predicting later behavior.

Non-Merit Factors. There is a group of other requirements which are commonly imposed which are seldom related to merit or competence. They include residence and citizenship limitations, veterans preference and seniority credits.

Seniority credits tend to detract from promotional examination validity. The applicants with the longest service at a lower level are frequently the least competent.

Rigid residence requirements sometimes make effective recruitment impossible. When their use is optional and flexible they can be an effective administrative tool. They can help control the number of applicants for a low level class for which there is a surplus of applicants. Their optional use can also help pinpoint recruiting for a class for which it is desirable to recruit from an area peopled by a particular ethnic group. Laws or rules regarding residence should be flexible enough to permit administrative decisions to limit recruiting to any area appropriate to the needs.

Traditional Tests and Measuring Devices

We have traced the planning of an examination through the job analysis, identification of the important performance requirements and the recruiting and preliminary screening procedures. We will now proceed to the techniques which are more commonly thought of as "tests," and which are usually used to determine the rank order of eligibles as well as to eliminate others.

Mis-Use of Written Tests

Most small agencies and many large ones purchase so-called standardized tests from their publishers, and in some cases have used them without regard to their actual value or even to their intended uses. They have been used for classes for which their subject matter was unsuitable and for groups for which their difficulty and language is inappropriate.

One example will illustrate. A test which was developed in 1918 is still in use with only minor modifications. It was originally recommended because it identified the brighter school students, yielding intelligence quotients comparable to the Binet tests. Copies of its several forms are available to nearly all teachers and to many students, so test security is impossible. It is currently in use by a few agencies as the sole weighted test for occupations as different as clerical, police, and administrative classes, with all of the poor practices mentioned above and many others. The test is so general that it measures factors which are not pertinent to any one occupation, and it fails to measure other factors which may be critical to success.

General Guides to Written Test Planning

Most aspects of test planning have been covered extensively in the literature, notably by Dorothy Adkins (1, 15), but some general guides are:

1. It is impossible to test every ability that might contribute to job success, therefore the tests should be restricted to the few most important abilities which written tests can measure.
2. For each ability tested there should be sufficient items to produce a reliable measure of that ability. Essay and free answer tests rarely meet this requirement. Neither do blocks of five or ten multiple choice items.
3. The weight given to the score for each ability should be relative to the importance of that ability. The number of items is a very rough guide to the weight carried by a subtest.
4. It is preferable to keep together in one block or subtest all of the items measuring a single ability. This simplifies statistical analysis and test validation and can easily provide part scores for placement purposes. The so-called spiral omnibus test has more disadvantages than it has advantages.
5. A test used previously for a given class may not be appropriate for a forthcoming examination, even though the earlier results may have been good. In addition to changes in methods in the occupation, the relationship between manpower needs and the labor market will change from time to time, as will the kinds and numbers of people available in the labor market. Among other things, effective test validity may be improved by changes in the test which alter the shape of the distribution of scores.

The Two-Way Test Plan

Written tests have been roundly criticized in recent years on the ground that they test the ability to recognize more or less useful facts or bits of knowledge, but not the ability to use that knowledge. Multiple choice tests need not suffer from this deficiency, although they frequently do.

Test constructors often prepare test plans that call for given numbers of items by subject, and assume that this ends the planning. This is only the first half of a complete plan.

The ability to recognize a correct fact among several incorrect statements is an element of occupational knowledge, but occupational proficiency also demands the ability to relate one fact to another, to classify facts, to explain and interpret them, to make predictions concerning them, and to reorganize them. As a test samples the knowledge used in an occupation, it should also sample the ability to manipulate and utilize that knowledge.

One scheme for describing the hierarchy of mental processes involved in using knowledge is:

1. Recognizing, identifying, remembering.
2. Defining, illustrating, comparing, classifying.
3. Explaining, interpreting, predicting.
4. Reorganizing on a new level, creating, producing.

Multiple choice items that test all of these abilities can be written within any subject matter area.

The need to perform each of these kinds of operations can be derived from the performance requirements, and an estimate of the importance of each can be made, which in turn leads to a weighting scheme known as the two-way test plan.

An example of a two-way test plan which might be used as part of an examination for a personnel generalist class is given below. It utilizes a different and simpler hierarchy of processes than that shown above.

Subject	Total Number of Items	Simple Memory of Facts	Understanding of Concepts	Application of Concepts
A. Planning of a Written Test	5	2	3	0
B. Item Writing, Review and Revision	15	0	5	10
C. Analysis and Evaluation of Test Results	15	3	9	3
D. Statistics Used in Testing	10	2	4	4
	45	7	21	17

None of the four parts of this test, used alone, could be expected to have acceptable reliability because of their length. The four parts may be combined and expected to produce a single reliable score if competitors are generally familiar with all four sub-topics or with none of them.

A much more detailed and comprehensive outline of the organization of these mental processes is given by Benjamin S. Bloom in his *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives* (2). Bloom's descriptions, in contrast to his title, are lucid and are accompanied by illustrative test items. They suggest a wide variety of outlines which would be useful for test planning.

Planning the Interview

An interview is a part of most examinations, and in many it is the sole ranking device. It is an invaluable means of getting more details regarding prior background than can be learned from an application form, and it can be an excellent public relations medium in a process that is too often impersonal.

Its stated purpose is usually to evaluate personal traits and attitudes that are predictive of job success, and in this respect it has proved less successful.

A survey of the research into the validity of employment interviews, made by Eugene C. Mayfield (6), shows that they seldom contribute significantly to the accuracy of prediction. He did find, however, that on those occasions when interview ratings correlated positively with later job performance, the interviews tended to have certain characteristics. When these characteristics were lacking, validity was usually lacking as well. The following guides to good interviewing are suggested by Mayfield's survey:

1. An interviewing panel or board is superior to a single interviewer.
2. A structured interview is more likely to result in accurate predictions than is an unstructured one. In unstructured interviews the interviewers talk more than do the interviewees and they tend to make their decisions too early in the process. Structure may be added to an interview by providing guidance as to the kinds of information that are needed and as to the weights to give each kind of information for the job in question. Another kind of structure is a requirement that information favorable to the interviewee be sought, rather than simply setting up a search for unfavorable information, which is a too common practice.
3. Prediction of success is improved as more information about the interviewee is provided to the interviewers.
4. Interviewers can be trained in the use of effective techniques, which can add to the validity of the ratings.

Varieties of Interviews

In most interviews, termed *individual interviews*, a single applicant meets with either a single interviewer or a panel, most frequently of three members. The interviewers generally rate the applicant on either

1. Personality factors, speech, responsiveness, appearance and other factors which can be directly observed, *or*
2. on those factors plus his education, experience, and an overall evaluation as to his likelihood of success.

Other interviews known as *technical orals* or *oral examinations* are used to combine the functions of the usual interview with those of the written test. They include questions to test the knowledge of the applicant and his ability to apply that knowledge. Use of a technical oral as the sole ranking device is justified when the labor market will permit the elimination of only the least qualified applicants. It may also be the only feasible method of selection for such highly specialized classes that no suitable written tests are available and the cost of producing one would be exorbitant, since it would get little or no further use. In the latter case the key to success lies in the development of questions which will test the specialized abilities and in finding interviewers qualified to evaluate the answers.

In a *group oral* six or eight applicants are brought together in a leaderless conference to discuss and attempt to solve one or more problems under the observation of the raters. Competitors are usually rated on their contribution to the stated objectives. Group orals can be effective for conciliators, consultants or other classes which are primarily concerned with the group process. The ratings from group orals seldom correlate significantly with ratings obtained in any other test or interview, which seems to indicate that they can make a unique contribution to measurement.

Performance Tests

A performance test is usually a work sample test. It should provide a direct measure of ability to perform an important element of the job. We are most familiar with performance tests of typing and shorthand, but they can be produced for a wide variety of occupations. When they are well designed, with fair and objective scoring methods they are not only more valid than other tests, they are much better accepted by all segments of the applicant population. Performance tests are discussed at some length by Roscoe Wisner in Chapter 11 of *Recruitment and Selection in the Public Service* (3).

Education and Experience Ratings

These ratings, based on information given in a brief application form, have been used by nearly all public agencies, sometimes as the only weighted test in an examination. Evidence of significant validity has seldom been shown. As an exception to the general practice, the United States Civil Service Commission has made effective use of education and experience ratings in its "unassembled" examinations, but only by bringing together far more than the usual amount of information and by applying it to very specific job elements or requirements. As used by the Commission it is an effective but time-consuming process.

Other tests and devices

- *Promotional potential ratings* can be excellent in promotional examinations if supervisors' biases and personal feelings can be controlled. They should be based on reports made for this one purpose. Performance evaluations intended as supervisory tools have no place in a competitive examination.
- *Biographical data* can add greatly to examination validity if it is empirically derived and weighted. The development of these methods is unfortunately difficult and beyond the resources of most agencies at this time.
- *Personality tests* designed for clinical use, particularly the projective tests, lack validity in a competitive examination and they lack general public acceptance. Some personality factors have been measured by test, but carefully constructed questionnaires filled out by persons who know the applicants have more commonly been successful.
- *References* given by the applicant seldom have any direct value, but can serve as a means of identifying disinterested parties who will give less biased information.
- *Employer checks* cannot always be made, and when they are feasible they sometimes are misleading as to the applicants' competence because of the differences in jobs and circumstances.
- *Reports by credit bureaus* are helpful upon occasion, but are ordinarily too superficial to be worth their cost.

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ASSIGNMENT

The following question should be answered as completely as possible on separate paper. Two copies of your responses should be mailed to the instructor. One copy will be returned to you with the instructor's comments and the other will be retained as part of your course record.

> *Arrange a meeting with the person in your organization (or in the organization that you are studying) who is responsible for conducting the selection process. Determine and report on the testing process used for a particular position: (secretarial, typing and shorthand).*
>
> - *For what position(s) is the testing process used?*
> - *What types of testing procedures are used?*
> - *What kinds of validity and/or reliability data is available for these tests.*
> - *How are each of the tests weighted in terms of their importance to the selection decision? [On what data does this person rely most heavily to make the selection decision?]*
> - *If you were the applicant, how would you feel about participating in this process and why?*
> - *Would you want to change this process in any way? If so, how?*

STUDY QUESTIONS

Answer Key

1. If you answered that each of these examples could be used as a test, you are right. As you might now begin to recognize, we need to know more about the situations in which these activities would occur to determine if the activity is actually used as a test or if it is used appropriately.

2. a. Hiring decisions would be incorrect. The organization would loose money; employee morale would be adversely affected; and civil rights suits may be filed.
   b. Same as #1.
   c. Civil rights action may be taken and the firm may lose good applicants because of a few individuals prejudices.
   d. Same as #1.
   e. Program won't be accepted by external applicants and civil rights action and loss of positive company image in community may occur, which would adversely affect employee morale.
   f. Loss of money through not responding to market demands. If standards are set too high in a tight market the job may never get filled and present employees may be forced to carry high loads of work which just won't get done. In an open market, the organization may spend too much time and money on extensive screening of poorly qualified candidates.
   g. If you go over the budget, you'll hear from your boss!
   h. The organization will have a negative image in the community. Poor public image will often adversely affect the demand for the organization's goods and/or services.
   i. Organizations may fail to hire many qualified individuals and may hire those who pass the test but fail the job! Civil rights action may also occur.

3. The use of the test is researched. The test is not considered valid or invalid per se, it must be validated in the organizational setting in which it will be used. It should be effective (serve its purpose) and produce meaningful results for the employee. No test is valid for all purposes and in all situations. Validity is found in varying degrees.

4. a. Predictive validity--quantify the relationship between the test scores and the employer-established criteria.
   b. Concurrent validity--also quantifies the relationship between the test scores and the employee-selected criteria. Employees on the job are tested and rated on the criteria immediately.
   c. Content validity--relates to skill or knowledge of the job.
   d. Construct validity--relates to the trait being measured.

5. a. Written tests--Intelligence and mental ability tests--are designed to measure the capabilities of an individual's mental ability. Interest Inventories are designed to identify the individual's preference in

vocational areas. Test Batteries are utilized to test and process large numbers of applicants for specific types of positions. Aptitude and ability tests are designed to measure an individual's ability to perform work requiring special skills or abilities. Personality tests determine attitudes, beliefs, and personalities of applicants.

b. Education and experience are considered job-related. Data on these factors are renewed during the interview.

c. Performance tests are also considered job-related. They are actual samples or demonstrations of the work to be performed.

d. Oral tests are designed to spontaneously reveal temperament, skills, and character attributes.

e. Reference checks are an examination and validation of information.

f. Polygraph attempts to measure validity of responses.

6. a. Can be an unwarranted invasion of privacy unless questions are relevant to job success.
   b. Applicant should have a right to know the result of the tests.
   c. Cultural bias may be present in tests.

7. Your answers to each part may have included the following types of tests. Your specific reasons for the selections you made can be discussed at the next workshop.

   a. Performance tests, Oral tests, Education and Experience.
   b. Reference checks, Education and Experience, and possibly Performance tests.
   c. Oral tests, Written test/Test Battery, and Performance--based on previous position in company
   d. Performance tests, Oral tests.

8. There is no "correct" answer to this question. Nevertheless, this question is an important one for you to consider in determining your own position about the role and use of testing in making selection decisions.

PA 848
MANAGEMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCES

MODULE 5:
PERFORMANCE EVALUATION

PREPARED
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UNIVERSITY EXTERNAL STUDIES PROGRAM

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MODULE 5: PERFORMANCE EVALUATION

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MODULE 5: PERFORMANCE EVALUATION

KEY TERMS AND CONCEPTS

- Performance Evaluation
- Timing
- Evaluator
- Graphic Rating Scales
- Critical Incident
- Paired Comparison
- Normal Distribution
- Weightings
- Field Review
- Central Tendency
- Halo Effect

INTRODUCTION

A preceding module (selection) described an individual's entry into the organizational work environment. This module describes how performance evaluation programs may facilitate the effective advancement of employees. The purposes, procedures, and methods of performance evaluation will serve as the focal points of this module.

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

When you have completed your study of the materials in this module, you should be able to:

1. State three major purposes for conducting performance evaluation.
2. Describe four major aspects of formal performance evaluation programs.
3. Describe at least one method of performance evaluation presented in this module.
4. Summarize the problems frequently encountered by performance evaluation programs.
5. Explain an organization's performance program in terms of its goals, methods and procedures, employee involvement, etc.
6. Consider and explain your own feelings regarding the use of performance evaluation programs.

OVERVIEW

Objectives	Tasks	Resources	Evaluation
1. State three major purposes for conducting performance evaluation.	Study Question 1	Module Reading A	Self
2. Describe four major aspects of formal performance evaluation programs.	Study Question 2,3	Module Reading B	Self
3. Describe at least one method of performance evaluations presented in this module.	Study Question 4	Module Reading B	Self
4. Summarize the problems frequently encountered by performance evaluation programs.	Study Question 5, 6, 8	Module Reading B, D	Self
5. Explain an organization's performance evaluation program in terms of its goals, methods and procedures, employee involvement, etc.	Study Question 7 Module Assignment	Module Reading C Module Readings and your experience	Self Instructor Feedback
6. Consider and explain your own feelings regarding the use of performance evaluation programs.	Module Assignment	Module Readings and your experience	Self (Instructor Reaction)

A. PURPOSES OF PERFORMANCE EVALUATION

Passing judgment on the performance and effectiveness of its employees is a task every employer must perform. Employees are evaluated daily for such various considerations as promotion, termination, advancement, discipline, reward, and task reassignment. Yet, performance evaluation is frequently a difficult, uncomfortable process for both the supervisor conducting the evaluation and the employee being evaluated. Both the supervisor and the employee are sensitive to the limitations and possible negative consequences of performance evaluation. Most organizations, nevertheless, believe that it is necessary to develop a method to appraise and report performance that will prove meaningful to the individual and productive for the organization. A means of implementing the process and applying the results, while recognizing that this in itself affects employee morale and motivation, must be found. (Stahl, 1971, p. 185) Many personnel specialist agree that evaluation should:

(a) "maintain or improve performance, not retard it;

(b) support supervisory responsibility for the ultimate effectiveness of the work performed; and

(c) assure reasonable equity and dignity in human relationships." (Stahl, 1971, p. 185)

The literature on personnel administration usually states three primary reasons for developing a formal performance evaluation program. First, a performance evaluation system provides a mechanism for the review of the employee's work-related behavior. The installation of such review systems can encourage communication between supervisors and the employees for whom they are responsible. Communication will allow for counseling, objective discussion of strengths and weakness, a cooperative development of goals, and recognition of past behavior; and it will provide an opportunity for positive focusing on desired improvements. Formal systems will require the employee and supervisor to periodically plan beyond every day problems and consider long range development which will be mutually beneficial to the employee, the supervisor, and the organization.

Second, formal performance evaluation systems provide a mechanism for collecting data for promotion decisions. A formal system should allow for more objectivity, equity, and control than an informal system which offers an unstructured and, frequently, a political process. Structured systems will control the timing of data collection and the type (work-related) and amount of data to be obtained. They are, therefore, less easily (or more obviously) misused than are informal systems.

Third, the results of performance evaluation--the analysis--can be used as input for wage and salary decisions. This will allow organizations to implement merit increase salary programs in addition to the traditional seniority-reward systems.

STUDY QUESTION

1. What are the ends to be served in any effort to evaluate and report on work performance?

B. CONSIDERATIONS FOR FORMAL PERFORMANCE EVALUATION SYSTEMS

1. Four Aspects of Performance Evaluation Systems

There are many aspects of formal evaluation systems which must be considered if the system is to be effective and benefit both the employee and the organization. Among these are four key questions which should be asked; namely, a) who should be evaluated, b) what should the criteria for evaluation be, c) what should be the timing and frequency of evaluation, and d) who should conduct evaluations.

a. Who should be evaluated?

All employees need the information and assistance offered by performance evaluation systems. Performance evaluation reviews are often the only opportunity some employees have to receive personal and direct attention from their immediate supervisors.

Even the performance of senior executives of large organizations is reviewed, although the form of the review may tend to be more informal than any of the formal types described in this module. The point remains that no employee--regardless of position in an organization--is or should be exempt from a performance review program.

b. What are the criteria for evaluation?

Evaluations are generally found to be based on actual or potential performance. If the overall purpose of the evaluation is improvement of performance or wage and salary adjustment, the emphasis of the review should be placed upon actual performance. If the overall objective is to determine promotional potential, the evaluation may be structured to resemble the selection process, and past general performance and relevant skills, knowledge, and ability are assessed through an analysis of employee records and interviews.

Exactly what should be appraised? The immediate answer is the employee's performance not the individual. (As obvious as this statement may seem, some traditional evaluation systems still operating today emphasize "personal" non-work related traits and characteristics.) Criteria relating to actual and concrete job behavior should be explicitly identified for appraisal. Examples of such criteria would be quality and quantity of work, ability to get along with co-workers and/or clients, and knowledge of product or service. "The more specific and more closely related the criteria are to job output, the better the performance evaluation." (Glueck, 1974, p. 290) Also, as stated previously, the selected criteria should be directly related to the purpose of the evaluation.

There are some problems that will occur when attempting to report actual performance. First, it is necessary that rating forms be structured to assist the evaluator in taking note of each significant element of performance. Incomplete, brief or totally numerical ratings deter a free exchange of information. Additionally, the form should be structured to each specific position, the same criteria would not generally be used for such diverse positions as police officer or computer programmer. When one set of criteria is applied to all jobs, the results will be neither significant nor effective. Another problem which may arise is that the evaluator may judge exceptional rather than representative performance. The supervisor may remember the employee's recent excellent performance on a special project and forget that he/she normally is disinterested and slow in doing his/her daily work. Or, the employee may always perform his/her work in an effective and efficient manner but the supervisor's evaluation may coincide with the employee's one bad day on the job and that poor performance rather than the previous overall good performance becomes the basis for assessment. Evaluators must be advised to assess the employee's total performance.

c. When should performance evaluations occur? What should be the timing and frequency of evaluations?

Timing is an important consideration when structuring a performance evaluation system. When and how often such mechanisms should be utilized needs to be determined.

Fixed period performance evaluations (lower-level employees semi-annually and higher-level employees annually) are common. However, fixed periods generally have a negative effect on the system. Some supervisors feel this causes a forced confrontation which is awkward and disruptive to the supervisor/employee relationship. Also, fixed periods create an artifical process which implies that the employee receives only one hour of consideration out of approximately 2080 hours in the average work year. "Since performance evaluation is designed to improve future performance, job satisfaction, and employee development, the more often the evaluation the better, and the closer the evaluation is to the action, the better." (Stahl, 1971, p. 187) To address this problem some employers have modified their performance systems so that employee evaluations coincide with randomly occuring but specific events instead of the fixed calendar intervals (i.e., new supervisor, change in job duties, reorganization of department or unit, etc.). Another modification is to conduct performance appraisal on the basis of exception. Only performance which is unusually superior or unusually poor is reported. Therefore, no report is made on the majority of workers. Another variation is the elimination of frequent ratings for long term employees with the substitution of ratings once every number of years or in conjunction with specific events. (The time period or the specific events will be determined by the organization.)

d. Who should conduct the evaluation?

The employee may be evaluated by any of the following individuals or groups of persons.

Immediate supervisor evaluation is the most common practice. The rationale for the use of immediate supervisor evaluation is that:

- the immediate supervisor is in the best position to observe the employee's behavior and
- the supervisor can assess the employee's performance in conjunction with organizational objectives.

There is a disadvantage in that there is no check on the supervisor's evaluation. If personality conflicts or racial or sexual prejudices influence the evaluation, normally the employee's only recourse is to transfer or resign. Some employers utilize the grievance procedures as a safety valve for this type of situation. (Discipline and Grievance procedures are the subject of Module #10.)

The rating by a committee of supervisors is the next most frequently used practice. It's advantages are:

- the group may negate possible bias of any one individual and
- it may bring greater amounts of information forward.

This procedure assumes that all the supervisors participating in the evaluation have the same exposure to and knowledge of the individual's performance, a situation which seldom occurs. Also, if there are disagreements within the group of supervisors, the final evaluation will often be a compromise which may or may not accurately reflect the employee's actual performance.

Peer evaluation is found most frequently in the military and is best utilized in those areas where there is frequent working contact between peers. Problems will occur with this technique when compromise is necessary or when all of the employees decide to give similar evaluations to all of those in the group. This "mutual admiration society" seldom reflects the true situation.

Subordinate evaluation is normally utilized for supervisors and managers and is used in conjunction with immedicate superior evaluation. This technique is used infrequently. There appears to be an inherent problem of mistrust. Employees hesitate to criticize the supervisor who is in a position to make their job either very pleasant or very unpleasant.

The field review technique is normally used for only very important positions or in exceptional cases where prejudice or bias has removed any trace of objectivity. In this approach, an outside, independent evaluator is hired to conduct the performance evaluation which is expected to be impartial and objective. The disadvantages of this technique are that it presents additional costs to the organization and may be less effective if the outside evaluator is handicapped by the lack of sufficient time and detailed information.

Self-evaluation is generally utilized in conjunction with other evaluation practices. When correctly utilized, this technique allows the individual to objectively assess his or her strengths and weaknesses and establish his or her own goals. This technique will not be effective with employees who have an overly positive or negative self image.

2. Methods of Performance Evaluations.

Various methods of evaluation are utilized today. Most of the methods were designed for evaluation of the employee by the immediate supervisor or a group of supervisors. The following represent some of these principal evaluation methods. As you read them and consider their possible usefulness to an organization with which you are familiar, remember that each method can only be as reliable as the people who use them.

Production records: This method utilizes the measurement of actual units of production. Certain types of work (keypunching, filing, coding, auditing) lend themselves to this kind of measurement. The advantages of this technique are that it is generally objective and the employees may participate in determining the production norms or standards. The disadvantages are that only a few types of jobs may be evaluated by this method and quantity may not be the only needed factor for evaluation. Even in jobs where production may be easily measured, quality and the ability to get along with co-workers are other performance factors which should be considered.

Graphic rating scales: The graphic rating scale is generally recognized as the most widely used performance evaluation method. This technique was designed to reduce inconsistency through standardization of rating scales. The technique identifies and lists those characteristics upon which supervisory judgments are to be made.

The ratings can be descriptive statements or a continuous numerical scale from 0-9. "Yes/No" and descriptive ratings are generally assigned a point value and total scores are then computed. The graphic rating scale is still less than satisfactory since it relies upon the evaluator's translation of qualitative judgments into quantitative terms. "The stamp of scientific method was being paced on essentially subjective judgments." (Stahl, 1971, p. 197) However, some benefits may accrue since this method may facilitate supervisor/employee communication and assist in the joint development of performance goals.

The graphic rating scale on the following page (XIII.5.11) has been completed to illustrate how this method is used. Along the left hand margins are the characteristics upon which the employee is to be evaluated. Each characteristic is named and briefly described. The rating categories--outstanding to unsatisfactory--are listed across the top of the form. The numbers in parentheses after each rating category represent the number of

PERFORMANCE EVALUATION

TYPICAL GRAPHIC RATING SCALE*

NAME: *M. Groves* **DEPARTMENT:** *Accounting* **DATE:** *June 6, 19--*

	Outstanding (10)	Good (8)	Satisfactory (6)	Fair (4)	Unsatisfactory (2)
Quantity of work Volume of acceptable work under normal conditions.	☑	☐	☐	☐	☐
Comments: *Always above acceptable levels*					
Quality of work Thoroughness, neatness and accuracy of work.	☑	☐	☐	☐	☐
Comments: *Always at acceptable levels or above*					
Knowledge of Job Clear understanding of the facts or factors pertinent to the job.	☐	☑	☐	☐	☐
Comments: *Needs very specific and detailed instructions over a period of time when learning new tasks.*					
Cooperation Ability and willingness to work with associates supervisors and subordinates toward a common goal.	☐	☐	☑	☐	☐
Comments: *Has difficulty adjusting to others' work rates. Can become critical of coworkers.*					
Dependability Conscientious, thorough, accurate, reliable with respect to attendance, lunch periods etc.	☑	☐	☐	☐	☐
Comments: *Exemplary employee in this area.*					
Initiative Earnestness in seeking increased responsibilities. Self-starting, unafraid to proceed alone.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☑
Comments: *Would prefer not to learn new tasks. Prefers security of known assignments. Will not seek new assignments and always comes to supervisor for instructions and approval even on trivial tasks.*					

TOTAL *46*

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*This graphic rating scale has been adapted from one suggested by William Glueck, Personnel: A Diagnostic Approach (Dallas, Texas: Business Publications Inc., 1974), p. 293.

points that the employee will receive for each check in that category. The minimum and maximum number of points that any employee can receive on this form are 12 and 60 points, respectively.

Critical Incident Method: The first step in this method is determinig the major performance requirements of the job. Evaluation is then made at any time the supervisor observes an incident that illustrates either good or bad performance of one or more of the designated requirements. The supervisor records the incident and the illustrative employee performance on the employee's personnel file. "The resulting worksheet becomes a realistic record of some concrete experiences that will serve as a profile of the employee's pattern of behavior, bringing out both effective and ineffective incidents." (Stahl, 1971, p. 198) The perceived advantages of this method are that:

- it fosters supervisor/employee communication and
- it focuses on facts.

However, this technique does have one major disadvantage in that it will highlight only a few examples of the employee's performance while ignoring the majority of average work time which is normally more typical of an individual's performance.

Essay or Free-Written Reports: This technique is less formal than those previously discussed. It requires that supervisors write a periodic or scheduled narrative report on each employee under their supervision. An essay may be written on the employee's strong or weak points or a general guide or outline can be provided to assist the evaluator and to assure the completeness of the report. The guide would include information such as:

- employee's name, title, and social security number;
- supervisor's name and title;
- date report completed;
- signature blocks for supervisor and employee;
- a statement on the general areas to be covered by the report (strong and weak points of present performance, factors which should be identified for additional skill training, or a discussion of factors which would contribute to a consideration of this employee for promotion).

This outline is used in the following two sample essay reports. These imaginary reports have been written on the same employee but by two very different supervisors.

SAMPLE ESSAY REPORT #1

Employee's Name: (John Doe)	Supervisor's Name (Sam Choke)
Employee Title (Senior Accounting Clerk)	Supervisor's Title (Payroll Supervisor)
Social Security # (000-00-0000)	Date completed (12/30/77)

Instructions: Discuss strong and weak points of present performance.

John's work is accurate.
Production is good
Always on time and is reliable.

Doesn't get along with co-workers.
Has no initiative, always brings problems to his supervisor. Needs supervisory approval and instructions.

SAMPLE ESSAY REPORT #2

Employee Name (John Doe)	Supervisors Name (Jane Verbal)
Employee Title (Senior Accounting Clerk)	Supervisors Title (Payroll Supervisor)
Social Security # (000-00-0000)	Date completed (12/30/--)

Instructions: Discuss strong and weak points of present performance.

Employees strong points are very favorable for the type of work performed in a payroll office. He is very accurate and has no problems in working with very detailed assignments. He does not become distracted or bored with repetitious work. The volume of work produced is excellent. He is very reliable: absentee and tardiness record are excellent, does not abuse break and lunch periods, and is willing to accept overtime assignments. Very cooperative with supervisor.

John does appear to have some difficulty in getting along with co-workers. Normally John will work alone. However, when special projects are required (processing W-2 forms) which require him to work with a team he expresses impatience with co-workers, does not communicate instructions well, and generally "would rather do it himself." Also, John does not show much initiative. If he notices a problem he will always bring it to his supervisor for instructions and approval even though he has been told to attempt to resolve such problems on his own and has been given both written and verbal instructions on how to handle problems.

John is generally a very good employee. His weak points do not present a serious problem in this office since the work is generally repetitive and performed alone. Accuracy and speed are more critical than interpersonal skills and initiative. However, this should be considered if he should be considered for a job that requires the latter.

As the two preceding sample essay reports indicate free-written reports allow for statements of facts and categorization of information which may not be easily accomplished on more formal and structured forms. This technique is helpful for training purposes, but makes the promotion and compensation aspects more difficult since it does not provide for quantitative comparisons of individuals. (Glueck, 1974, p. 94) But there are limitations to the essay type of report. Each supervisor's ability to compose a report will vary, and the employees may suffer (or benefit) based upon the supervisor's writing skills. Also, since judging another individual is not a duty that most supervisors enjoy, they normally prefer a more structured format to guide them. Forms which require checking a block are less threatening to the supervisor than one which requires that they use their own words. Therefore, instead of writing an essay, many supervisors will use brief phrases which provide limited information.

Paired Comparison: In this approach, the names of persons to be evaluated are placed on separate sheets or cards. Each person is then compared separately with every other person (two at a time) on each predetermined evaluation category. (Glueck, 1974, p. 295) The evaluator then checks the person he/she feels is the better of the two. "The number of times a person is preferred is tallied, this develops an index of the number of preferences compared to the number being evaluated." (Glueck, 1974, p. 295) This method is more useful for promotion and compensation decisions than for counseling and development. The technique should be used only with small groups so that the evaluator has sufficient knowledge of the employees being compared.

Forced Distribution: This method attempts to evaluate two major areas, job performance and promotability, with one general assessment. The technique is similar to grading on a curve. It assumes that most employees are average with smaller but equal numbers of employees falling both above and below average. The evaluator rates the employees on the two major areas (performance and promotability) according to a required fixed distribution of employees. (For example, 10% of the employees must be rated in the low group, 20% low average, 40% average, 20% high average, and 10% in the high group.) (Glueck, 1974, p. 194) The names of employees are sorted into piles corresponding to the various distributions.

This procedure is done twice for each major area to ensure that the initial rating was adequately considered. When variations occur in the second round, the reasons should be sought and questioned to assure that the ratings are well-founded and not arbitrary.

An example of a forced distribution evaluation conducted by Mr. Jones follows. Mr. Jones (payroll supervisor) has ten employees. Each employee's name is written on two cards: one is headed promotability and the other is headed job performance. Supervisor Jones evaluates each employee in each area (job performance and promotability) and places their names under the required distributions. He may evaluate no more than 10% of his employees in the low grouping, 20% in low average, 40% in average, 20% in high average, and 10% in the high grouping. That is, he is forced to evaluate them on a "curve."

1st Round Forced Distribution (Mr. Jones, Supervisor)

	Low 10%	Low Average 20%	Average 40%	High Average 20%	High 10%
Job Performance	J. Smith	C. Connors W. Riley	K. May P. Robb R. Black S. Stevens	A. Goode W. Russell	J. Reynolds
Promotability	J. Smith	R. Black W. Riley	C. Connors W. Russell K. May S. Stevens	A. Goode P. Robb	J. Reynolds

This method has an advantage in that it forces supervisors to make employee evaluations and all employees are evaluated in a similar manner. Its main (and most obvious) disadvantage is that it will be unfair if the employee group does not follow the normal distribution which is assumed. The method is, however, easy to use and is appropriate for promotion and salary decisions.

Weighted Checklist: In this approach, personnel administrators and area supervisors or managers prepare an extensive list of descriptive statements regarding effective and ineffective job behavior. Supervisors familiar with each individual's job performance sort the statements into piles labeled excellent to poor for each employee. Weights are given according to each statement's classification and the weights are averaged.

Examples of descriptive statements and their possible placement for an employee follow. The specific weightings have not been added since they vary so much according to the situation. Let us simply note as a rule of thumb that the placement of a descriptive statement that is considered very important to the job (that receives a heavy weighting) is more significant than is a statement of a behavior that is not as essential--whenever it appears. As you read through the list of descriptive statements and look at their sample placement consider which you consider more important and what their placement would tell you about the employee. [Numbers have purposely been avoided in this brief discussion to avoid any unwanted connotation which they might contribute.]

Descriptive Statements (each would be typed on a separate card)

accuracy
volume of work under normal conditions
ability to follow instructions
ability to get along with co-workers and/or clients
attendance: tardiness
care of equipment and supplies
initiative
creativity
ability to meet deadlines

Placement of Descriptive Statements (Sample)

Employee Name (Richard Cook)
Employee Title (Social Worker)
Social Security # (000-00-0000)

Evaluator (John Derek)
Date Completed (12/15/--)

Excellent	Good	Satisfactory	Fair	Poor
Care of equipment and supplies	Volume	Accuracy	Creativity	
	Attendance: Tardiness	Ability to get along	Initiative	
	Deadlines			
	Instructions			

Note that the weighted checklist is an extension of the graphic rating techniques. Since it can become quite complicated to use meaningfully, its use has been minimal. For this approach to be effective, the rater must be both carefully trained on its use and familiar with all employees being evaluated and with each of their jobs.

Performance Tests: Job Performance tests or simulations are not frequently used. They require the development of actual job problems and requirements, and individuals are evaluated on how successfully they perform in the simulation. When used, they are most often tied to promotion or salary decisions. This technique has disadvantages in that

a. the work may not be truly representative of the employee's daily work,

b. this is a testing situation not a work situation, and

c. the simulation may not be a valid measure of the job to be done. (Glueck, 1974, p. 298)

It can be effective when the work involves technical problems or procedures. For some jobs the nature of the work is so complex and the procedures are so detailed that only viewing the work as it is being performed (in the simulation) will provide an accurate assessment of the skill goal.

Field Review Technique: This technique was mentioned earlier during the discussion of who should conduct the evaluation. It employs the use of an objective outside observer (Personnel Specialist). The employee and the supervisor are both questioned regarding the individual's performance by the observer who then assigns an overall rating. The field review technique has been used for all three evaluation purposes. Its advantages are that it reduces the necessity of supervisors filling out forms, that the presence of a third party may make the evaluation processes less threatening, that it may negate bias or prejudice, and that it assures uniformity in the system. It has disadvantages in that the outside observer may not have sufficient knowledge to resolve differences of opinion and it blocks supervisor/employee communication. The costs of this technique escalate with an increase in the number of participants (salary costs).

With so many performance evaluation systems available, why do both those being evaluated and the evaluator still perceive performance evaluations as an unpleasant and unrewarding task? The basic problems seem to be that we do not like judging persons individually or through comparison and we approach or use evaluation methods incorrectly. The following discussion presents other general criticims of performance evaluation systems.

The halo effect will occur when the evaluator either

a. gives the individual a certain rating because he/she has always been a good or poor employee, or

b. assigns the first rating on the form to all factors. A solution to this problem may be to structure the evaluation process to allow for each factor to be assessed at a different time period. The halo effect is found most frequently in graphic rating and weighted checklist systems.

Terminology and what each evaluative word means is a second problem. "Satisfactory" may mean different things to different evaluators. The use of more than one evaluator will adjust or average out the problem of one group of employees who have an easy evaluator versus the employees with the "hard-nose" evaluator. This problem can arise with almost all of the evaluation techniques.

A third problem is that of "central tendency." Some evaluators will always rate a group of employees within a narrow range; all are clustered around the average, and actual performance differences between individuals is ignored. This situation is most often found with graphic rating scales but will also occur with the other systems.

The time frame of the evaluation can cause a fourth problem. Many evaluators will allow "recent behavior" to bias their judgment. It is not uncommon for six months of good job performance to be forgotten and the problems of the past several weeks to be remembered or vice versa.

Personal biases may also affect the performance evaluation system. Forced choice, field review, and performance tests were developed as an attempt to diminish this problem.

Technical problems also occur. Some systems are complex and difficult to understand. Others may take extensive time to complete correctly. Also, the reliability of many of the methods are questionable.

Two final problems may be considered humanistic in nature. First, as mentioned earlier, many supervisors are hesitant to judge individuals and are very reluctant to put critical comments in writing. Second, comparison of individuals creates a zero-sum game; some employees win, some lose. Minor differences between individuals can create major morale and productivity problems. Most performance evaluation systems do not include mechanisms to

a. tell employees *why* they received a certain ranking,

b. determine what the individual's *strengths* and *weaknesses* are, and

c. *counsel* problem areas and develop work goals.

3. Employee Participation in Performance Evaluation Systems

Initiating performance evaluation systems will be a fruitless exercise unless it is recognized that to be effective you need the full understanding, participation, and acceptance of the employees being appraised. (Stahl, 1971, p. 192) Recent research on the subject has also indicated that the supervisor and employee should share in the entire process.

Communication is necessary to remove any fears and doubts employees may have. Policy and procedures should be explained. The goals of the program and how it will affect the individual and organization should be communicated. Employees should be encouraged to come forward with any problems or questions they may have regarding the system.

Employee participation should begin with the process of establishing the work standards. "Experience has demonstrated that standards of performance which employees have helped shape are the most durable, the most valid, and the most operable." (Stahl, 1971, p. 192) Employee participation should also be built into the evaluation itself, and supervisors should discuss their appraisal of the jointly-established standards with each employee. Discussions of the analysis should be constructive. Specific goals and plans for improvement should result.

The participative approach also requires that the employees have access to the results of the evaluation process. Employees need to know where they stand and what level of performance is expected of them. Records of past performance should be open to employees.

A more difficult question is whether employees should have access to records assessing "potential." "The prevailing thought, in contrast with that regarding performance reports, is that the highly subjective predictions implicit in supervisory descriptions of potential are purely opinion, can therefore be used only in combination with other devices that shape an employee's future, and would dry up into meaningless drivel if they had to be revealed (and, therefore, in a sense, 'justified') to employees." (Stahl, 1971, p. 194)

STUDY QUESTIONS

2. Describe what is to be evaluated/appraised.

3. List the four important aspects of formal evaluation programs that need careful consideration.

4. Who do you think should be responsible for conducting the performance evaluations in the following situations?

   a. John Mod has been working for Sam Prudent for two years. John has complained to the personnel Department that his supervisor have given him two poor ratings for surely personal reasons; he doesn't like the way John dresses, wears his hair, talks etc.

   b. A research team composed of employees who are all professional researchers has been conducting unsupervised work for the past year.

4. c. The installation of a computerized accounting system has caused a change in work procedures in the accounts payable section. Previously, the three supervisors and their respective subordinates worked with minimal contact. Now, the new procedures require that work that previously passed through three phases (a supervisor and two subordinates for each phase) be conducted as an integrated whole.

d. You are the manager of a medium size state unemployment compensation office in Pigeonback Pennsylvania. A secretary and four supervisors report to you. Each of the supervisors heads an independent work section and is soley responsible for the work performed by three clerks. The clerks all perform different tasks.

5. Select the one performance evaluation method which you prefer, describe it, and explain why you would prefer to use it.

6. What problems do employers and supervisors face in performance evaluation?

7. The personnel department where you are employed is in the process of revising the performance Evaluation system. Your supervisor, the Personnel Manager, has asked you to investigate the possibilities of employee participation. Write a statement discussing "Why employees should participate in their own evaluation" for your supervisor.

C. PERFORMANCE EVALUATION AND OTHER PERSONNEL SYSTEMS

The following article by Richard W. Beatty proposes a system for improving performance within any organization. Professor Beatty argues for the integration of performance evaluation with other personnel functions and systems. Read this article and answer the study question which follows it.

- "Personnel Systems and Human Performance" by Richard W. Beatty. (Reprinted with permission of the publisher from Personnel Journal, April, 1973, pp. 307-312.)

Personnel Systems and Human Performance

RICHARD W. BEATTY
Assistant Professor of Organizational Behavior
University of Colorado, Boulder, Colorado

A system is proposed here for improving performance within any organization. The system analyzes jobs and the behavior necessary to perform them successfully and then uses the requisite behaviors as criteria for selecting employees. Training in such behavior may be needed if the person hired cannot demonstrate the necessary behavior. Motivational alterations may be required to satisfy individual needs.

THE processes by which a personnel department attempts to improve human performance in an organization usually include activities involving the selection, training, motivation and evaluation of employees. In fact these functions might be considered the primary means for the department to make its contribution to the total organization. However, these functions are often departmentalized, not only physically, but also conceptually in the day-to-day management of the department. Such separation serves to treat these functions as if they were independent parts of the total personnel operation and obscure the recognition of their essential interdependencies. Explicitly recognizing these interdependencies enables the department to deal *systematically* in the management of the total personnel system.

A systematic treatment of the relationships between functions can be seen in Figure 1. Each of the circles represents a function (or subsystem) of the personnel department and the overlap between the circles depicts the interface between them. Notice all components of the system overlap with one another illustrating that the interface is not merely with one other subsystem, but with all of the subsystems.

Richard W. Beatty has had extensive experience as a consultant and in management development for private and public organizations. He received his B.A. from Hanover (Indiana) College, his M.B.A. from Emory University, and the Ph.D. in organizational behavior from Washington University. Dr. Beatty teaches in the Division of Management and Organization and U of C's Graduate School of Business Administration.

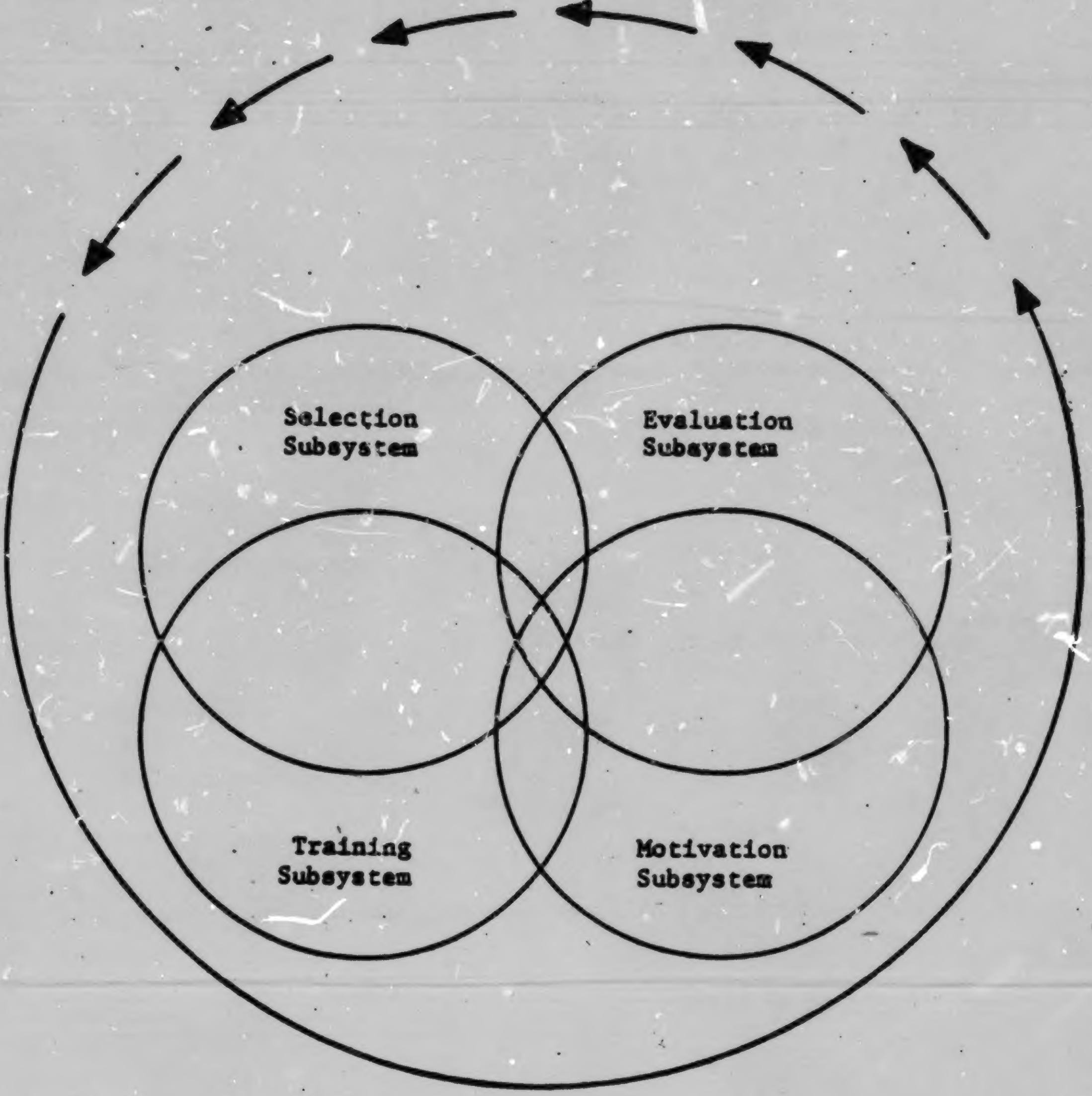

FIGURE 1.
Major Subsystems of the Total Personnel System

THE SUBSYSTEMS

In viewing the total personnel system in the above manner it is important to recognize not only the activities which make each of the subsystems unique, but how the subsystems are interrelated. At first it might appear that the most appropriate place to begin examining the total system would be with the selection subsystem because the selection subsystem is usually where an applicant initially interacts with the total system. On second thought however, it becomes obvious to begin with the *evaluation* subsystem because of the instrumental role it plays in the integration of the personnel function into the total organization through the identification and clarification of goals. Subsequently, the tasks specified and the criteria used to evaluate an employee's performance on these tasks are used as criteria for the validation of predictive selection instruments.

However simple the specification of tasks appears to be, the fact is that the evaluation of an employee's performance is extremely difficult. Yet it must be initiated before the selection and training of personnel can proceed if an employee is to know what behavior is expected and how he/she will be evaluated. Attempts to derive meaningful interpretations of evaluation and task specification practices have been most discouraging.[1] In fact, written task specifications are seldom combined with behavioral measures (observations) of task performance. In an attempt to bridge this gap, Campbell *et al.* have suggested more appropriate measures of performance effectiveness can be obtained by using criteria divided into "conceptual" (task specifications) and "performance" (job behaviors) categories. By basing evaluations of effectiveness upon both conceptual specifications and actual behavioral observations, it forces management to perform a diagnostic role which focuses upon job-relevant criteria rather than using global estimates which may only provide stereotypic reflections of an evaluator's perception of what constitutes "success" and not behaviors which are relevant for the accomplishment of a specific task.

Explicit recognition of the evaluation/selection interface provides better specification of what tasks need to be performed.

Obviously, such a diagnostic approach to evaluating performance effectiveness makes a major contribution to the *selection* process by tying output goals to the inputs necessary for successful performance.[2] Thus, explicit recognition of the evaluation/selection interface provides better specification of what tasks need to be performed and clarification of the behaviors necessary to perform these tasks. Once the actual behaviors required to successfully perform a particular task are clarified, selection criteria such as intelligence, tailor-made personality inventories, and biographical data reflecting past accomplishments and indications of other past behaviors can be used.[3] This selection process would emphasize data concerning behavioral information individualized for each job situation and attempt to determine the causality between the behaviors observed at the time a person was hired and subsequent measures of effectiveness.[4]

Certainly, drawing causal inferences between initial observations of behavior and the results obtained requires considerable expertise. In fact, selection criteria may often fail to predict performance. However, before the behavioral criteria used are faulted, further examination is warranted. For example, one reason that the predictions failed might be due to an employee demonstrating measurable change on selection criteria from the time of employment to the time of evaluation. Obviously if people are changing their behavior, the expected relationship between selection and performance criteria might also change. Furthermore, the assumption that behavior is fixed at the time of the selection decision ignores the very real possibility that an employee's behavior change may be due to the company's training and motivation efforts. Thus, these subsystems may explain a far larger part of the variance in performance effectiveness than skills measured at the time of the hiring decision.

THE TRAINING SUBSYSTEM

By assuming that *training*[5] can bring about behavioral change the personnel department acknowledges that people are not static, but can and do change. However, it has been noted that training is seldom explicitly linked with specific objectives or with behaviors that are known to be necessary for effective performance. In fact, education in and of itself is often assumed to have a positive, linear relationship with performance regardless of the type of education received, but research has shown that there appears to be little association between the two.[6] Obviously there are some exceptions to these findings for jobs requiring technical skills (e.g. typing, engineering research, etc.), but the data still indicate that when the work is held constant there appears to be little relationship between more education and higher levels of performance.[7]

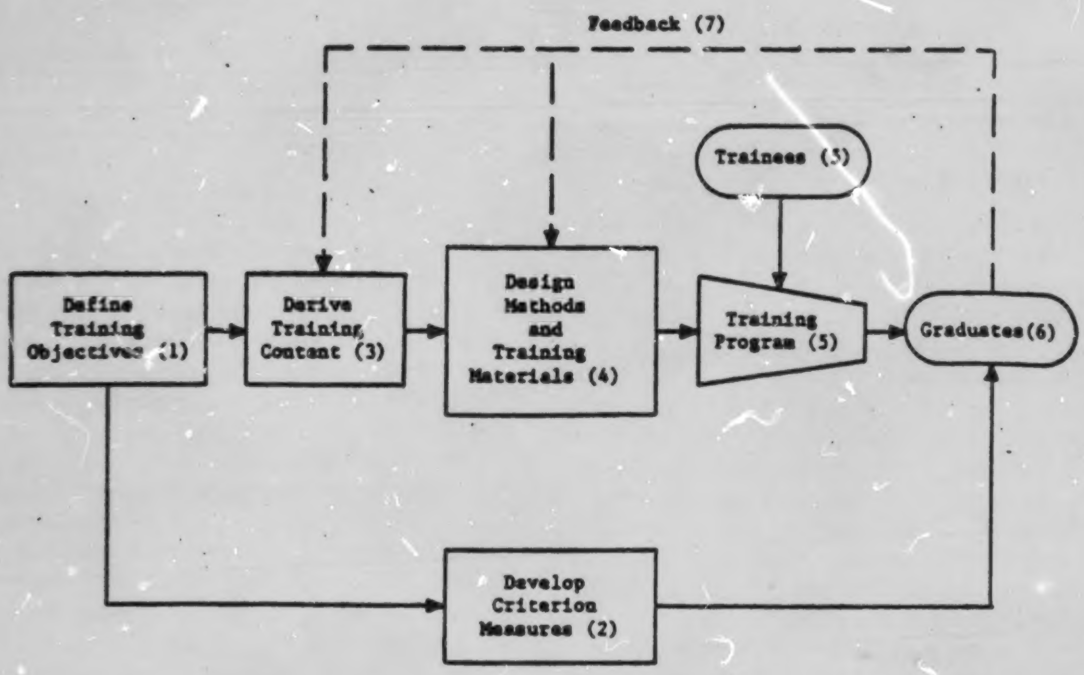
Feedback (7)
Trainees (5)
Define Training Objectives (1)
Derive Training Content (3)
Design Methods and Training Materials (4)
Training Program (5)
Graduates (6)
Develop Criterion Measures (2)

FIGURE 2.
The Training Subsystem[9]

One way in which performance can be improved, however, is through training which uses performance evaluations as a means of determining behaviors which are not satisfactorily contributing to effective performance, and then use training programs which train people to acquire specific behaviors, rather than more academic education. In other words, training should focus upon specific behavioral objectives and not just more education in the hope that somehow additional education will enhance performance.

Furthermore, the training subsystem is seldom treated systematically. In fact, evaluations of behavioral change as a result of training programs are not tested,[8] let alone approached systematically as shown in Figure 2, which represents the considerations required before implementing any sort of attempts at behavioral change through training. These include clear definitions of objectives (which should come from the evaluation and selection subsystems), as well as developing criterion measures to determine the impact of the program *before* the training content, methods and materials are devised.

Another aspect of effective training which is frequently overlooked in many programs is the application of the current knowledge available from the psychological discipline of learning (or learning theory). The integration of the knowledge gained in this discipline, combined with effective efforts to describe tasks in the evaluation subsystem and measuring skills necessary to perform these tasks in the selection subsystem, can immensely enhance the training effort by determining the specific type of skills required to perform each job (e.g. discrimination, manipulation, understanding, knowledge, insights or creativity). The isolation of tasks to be performed and the skills required for successful performance can be further improved through the use of "positive reinforcers"[10] such as praise, pay, congratulations, sincere reassurance, willingness to listen, etc. These can be particularly effective if they are used as immediately as possible after a desired behavior has been demonstrated and if careful attention is given to the frequency of reinforcement (i.e. schedules of reinforcement). However, few training programs attempt to give enough attention to these factors, which when combined with the other subsystems can significantly increase performance.

THE MOTIVATION SUBSYSTEM

Despite effective efforts in evaluation, selection, and training, satisfactory performance may still not be forthcoming. It may be that the person selected can demonstrate the skill or knowledge necessary to successfully perform a job, but is not *motivated* to do so. Thus, additional training would not improve performance, but motivational systems which use job enrichment, job enlargement, financial incentives, or other means of intrinsic or extrinsic reinforcement might lead to increased performance—especially if these programs are designed around the same learning principles used in the training subsystem. For example, in a recent article *Business Week*[11] discusses how the use of reinforcement techniques have led to fantastic increases in productivity and reductions in cost, primarily through motivating personnel by using feedback with praise as a reinforcer.

> **The person selected may demonstrate the skill necessary to successfully perform a job, but not be motivated to do so.**

Obviously, the design of such motivational systems draws upon well organized and well administered evaluation and selection programs. The evaluation program requires the comparison of performance to desired levels and recognition of the behaviors demonstrated on the job. The selection process hopefully provides the technology which permits assessment not only of necessary behaviors, but also of individual needs, goals, and aspirations. Therefore, evaluation and selection can aid in the resolution of motivational problems by exploring what people actually do on the job (behaviors) and what their personal needs are. Motivational theorists would presumably acknowledge that once the behaviors desired by the company were seen as instrumental and congruent for individual need satisfaction, motivation for task performance would be significantly increased.

AN EXAMPLE

Perhaps the previous discussion is obvious, and it is unnecessary to discuss the management of a personnel department from a systems viewpoint which emphasizes the interfaces between evaluation, selection, training, and motivation. But what may not be so obvious for personnel managers and the people responsible for the various subsystems is that they are dealing with only one part of the system and their efforts cannot be productive unless performed in conjunction and congruently with the other subsystems. In the training subsystem, for example, many training directors would deny that they are involved in programs irrespective and independent of the other subsystems. But be that as it may, training directors frequently send persons to programs which are unrelated to any behavioral/performance criteria required on the job. Such training can never be anything more than a reward of two weeks at a resort for meeting some artificial criteria designated by the training director. This is an example of exactly the sort of behavior which should be avoided since it uses non job-related performance criteria and uses as a reward the escape from the job, not meaningful work.

> **Evaluation and selection can aid in the resolution of motivational problems by exploring what people actually do on the job.**

The dilemma faced by training directors is the optimum utilization of the human, financial, and material resources at their disposal. In order to do this he/she must be able to correctly identify training problems which are separate from problems of selection, motivation, and evaluation. Only when a performance problem is clearly identified as a training

The dilemma faced by training directors is the optimum utilization of human, financial, and material resources.

problem should the resources be expended in training. Obviously, the same reasoning goes for the other areas, but probably no area is as susceptible to fads and frills as are found in the training subsystem. Thus, for a training department to fulfill its obligation to the organization, training must only proceed when ineffective performance has been appropriately diagnosed as due to the lack of a particular job skill. However, proper problem identification can be accomplished only if training directors interact with and are familiar with managers and the operations of other subsystems. Given frequent interaction and knowledge of the other subsystems, mutual agreement as to the reasons for ineffective performance may be determined. Unless such agreement can be reached, no remedy, particularly one as expensive as training, should be undertaken.

The training subsystem must continually be viewed in this relationship—only as a part of the total personnel system. Consequently, the following questions must always be seriously examined when contemplating training versus the other means of improving individual and organizational effectiveness:

1. Is ineffective performance clearly due to a lack of skill or knowledges required for effective job behavior?
2. Is there a reasonable probability that training will provide the behaviors necessary for effective performance?
3. Is such training the optimum use of company resources to increase ineffective performance?

Only when these three questions can unequivocally be answered positively should the training subsystem begin its operations!

THE TOTAL SYSTEM

The above analysis is a cursory examination of the system for improving individual performance within any organization. Briefly, the system begins by analyzing jobs and the behaviors necessary to successfully perform these jobs and then uses the required behaviors as criteria for selecting employees. If persons hired cannot demonstrate the necessary behavior, training in these behaviors is sought. Finally, if the required behaviors can be demonstrated but are not accomplished satisfactorily, motivational alterations which satisfy individual needs may be instituted.

References

[1] For example see John P. Campbell, Marvin D. Dunnette, Edward E. Lawler, and Karl E. Weick, Jr., *Managerial Behavior, Performance, and Effectiveness*, New York, McGraw-Hill Publishing Company, 1970, p. 106.

[2] For a further discussion of a selection process which focuses upon output goals see George S. Odiorne and Edwin L. Miller, "Selection by Objectives: A New Approach to Managerial Selection," *Management of Personnel Quarterly*, Vol. 5, No. 3, (Fall, 1966).

[3] Campbell *et al.*, p. 149.

[4] In addition it should be noted that the need for rigorously demonstrating the relationship between the criterion for performance and selection standards not only is required for sound managerial practices but has been reinforced by the recent "Griggs Decision" of the U. S. Supreme Court in stating that any means of selection must be "demonstrably a reasonable measure of job performance." Thus a company might not only be making erroneous selection decisions which are costly, but could also be involved in costly litigation.

[5] For the purpose of this discussion, training is defined as any additional activity required on the part of company personnel to increase the skills or knowledge of another employee.

[6] Ivan Berg, *Education and Jobs: The Great Training Robbery*, New York, Praeger Publishers, 1970.

[7] *Ibid.*

[8] Campbell *et al.*, p. 320.

[9] G. A. Eckstrand, "Current Status of the Technology of Training," *AMRL Document Technical Report 64-86*, (September, 1964), p. 3.

[10] For examples of the descriptions of the uses and scheduling of positive reinforcement see Walter R. Nord, "Beyond the Teaching Machine: The Neglected Area of Operant Conditioning in the Theory and Practice of Management," *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, Vol. 4, No. 4, (November, 1969), p. 375-401, or Stephen F. Jablonsky and David L. DeVries, "Operant Conditioning Principles Extrapolated to the Theory of Management," *Organizational Behavior and Human Performance*, Vol. 7, No. 2, (April, 1972), p. 340-358, or Gary Yukl, Kenneth N. Wexley, and James D. Seymore, "Effectiveness of Pay Incentives Under Variable Ratio and Continuous Reinforcement Schedules," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 56, No. 1, (February, 1972), p. 19-23.

[11] "New Tool: Reinforcement for Good Work," *Business Week*, December 18, 1971, p. 76-77.

8. What argument could you give for integrating the performance evaluation system with other personnel systems?

D. SOME DISSATISFACTIONS WITH APPRAISAL SYSTEMS (Optional)

The following article raises some serious questions about the adequacy of current performance evaluation programs. But, in addition to just raising questions, the author suggests some additional areas which must be addressed in order to improve the appraisal systems. This article is a recommended but not required reading.

> "Appraisal of What Performance?" by Harry Levinson.
> (Published in Harvard Business Review, Volume 54,
> Number 4, July-August 1976, pp. 30-48.)

E. CONCLUDING GUIDELINES FOR PERFORMANCE EVALUATION SYSTEMS

At this time the majority of American labor does not participate in formalized performance evaluation programs. However, many employers are now turning to such programs as a response to environmental pressure, such as Civil Rights legislation and a tight economy. The following conclusions will assist the student in understanding how the evaluation process is developing and what variables will effect its growth.

1. Smaller and more vital organizations are less likely to have formalized performance evaluation systems.
2. The larger the organization, the more likely it is to have evaluation techniques, and the more likely these will lead to greater equality than informal processes.
3. When the results of and the rationale for evaluation are communicated to employees, performance evaluation will be more effective.

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4. The more closely the evaluation follows the problem-solving approach, the more effective the evaluation process will be.

5. Evaluations based on work-related behavior are more reliable and effective than those based upon personality. (Glueck 1974, p. 312.)

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Glueck, William. Personnel: A Diagnostic Approach. Dallas, Texas: Business Publications Inc., 1974.

Stahl, Gleen. Public Personnel Administration. New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1971.

ASSIGNMENT

The following question should be answered as completely as possible on separate paper. Two copies of your responses should be mailed to the instructor. One copy will be returned to you with the instructor's comments and the other will be retained as part of your course record.

> *Describe an organization's performance evaluation program using the information presented in this module (e.g. timing, evaluators, method, employee involvement, etc.). Include a description of how an individual in the organization perceives the process. (If you have participated in the process yourself, you may describe your own perceptions and reactions to it.)*

STUDY QUESTIONS

Answer Key

1. a. Provides a mechanism for review of work related behavior.
   b. Provides data for promotion decisions.
   c. Provides input for wages and salary decisions.

2. Actual work performance. Not "personal" non-work related traits. Example: quality and quantity of work.

3. a. Who evaluates?
   b. What is evaluated?
   c. Who shall be evaluated?
   d. When and how often should evaluation occur?

4. a. Field Review Technique
   b. Peer Evaluation
   c. Committee of Supervisors
   d. Immediate Supervisor

5. a. Production records--utilizes the measurement of actual units of production. Advantages: objectivity and employee participation. Disadvantages: quantity may not be the only factor for evaluation. Can only be used with a few jobs.
   b. Graphic rating scales--lists characteristics which are evaluated by descriptive statements, yes/no, or a continuous numerical scale. Advantages: facilitates supervisor/employee communication and the development of performance goals. Disadvantages: relies upon evaluator's judgments.
   c. Critical incident method--evaluation is made when supervisor observes good or bad critical incidents. Advantages: communication and focuses on facts. Disadvantages: ignores majority of typical performance.
   d. Essay or free-written reports--less formal, unstructured narrative report. Advantages: allows for free statements of facts and additional information. Disadvantages: does not provide for quantitative comparisons of individuals.
   e. Paired comparison--each individual is compared to all others in unit. Number of preferences is tallied. Advantages: useful for promotion and compensation decisions. Disadvantages: can be used only with a small group.
   f. Forced distribution--evaluates job performance and promotability according to a fixed distribution of categories. Advantages: it prevents supervisors from making all the same decisions. Easy to use. Disadvantages: unfair if employee group does not follow normal distribution.
   g. Weighted checklist--descriptive statements sorted into classifications. Advantages: limited information. Disadvantages: limited information.
   h. Performance tests--actual job problems and requirements are evaluated. Advantages: good for review of technical work problems or procedures.

Disadvantages: impedes supervisor/employee communication, observer may not have sufficient knowledge.

6. a. We don't like judging others.
   b. Halo effect occurs.
   c. Differences in understanding terminology.
   d. "Central tendancy"--employees are clustered at middle of range.
   e. Recent behavior biases judgement.
   f. Personal biases color judgement.
   g. Technical problems--complex and time consuming forms, reliability questionable.
   h. Supervisors dislike putting critical comments into writing.
   i. Comparisons create a zero-sum game.

7. a. Communication necessary to remove fears and doubts.
   b. Performance standards will be more durable.
   c. Specific goals and means of improvements will result.

8. a. All personnel systems not independent parts but organizationally interturned.
   b. The supervisor is responsible for the job and the individual performing each task. The responsibility for effective performance requires that all systems work together.
   c. All systems share common information, example: duties and tasks to be performed. Necessary in selection for knowing why to hire. Necessary for training in knowing what to teach. Necessary for performance evaluation for knowing what to evaluate.

PA 848
MANAGEMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCES

MODULE 6:
TRANSFER AND PROMOTION

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UNIVERSITY EXTERNAL STUDIES PROGRAM

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MODULE 6: TRANSFER AND PROMOTION

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MODULE 6: TRANSFER AND PROMOTION

KEY TERMS AND CONCEPTS

- Promotion
- Transfer
- Selection
- Career Systems
- Merit
- Seniority

INTRODUCTION

Recruitment of employees from sources external to an organization is only one way in which positions within an organization can be filled. Staffing from internal sources--through transfers and promotion--is a second option to employers which offers: 1) a recruitment source close at hand, 2) opportunities for advancement for present employees, 3) improved morale for the organization, and 4) an aid to manpower planning. More specifically, many organizations exhibit a strong preference for internal applicants because they feel that such policies produce the following benefits:

- Hiring costs may be lowered. Expensive recruitment tools, such as advertising, are not necessary.
- Learning and adjustment time for transferred or promoted employees will be less than for new employees to the organization. The internal applicant is already familiar with the general organization--its structure, function, policies, procedures, and products and/or services.
- The transferred or promoted employee will probably demonstrate more loyalty to the organization than a new employee.
- Better selection decisions may be made because such decisions will be based upon observed behavior over a period of time in an actual work situation.

External recruitment of new employees frequently represents the first step or movement of those employees into an organization. Once they have been hired, it is highly likely that they will experience horizontal (transfer) and/or vertical (promotion) movements within the organization. Such movements should be made within the framework of a rational system. This module, therefore, will discuss transfer and promotion systems and how movement within an organization is accomplished.

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After completing the module readings, study questions, and assignment, you should be able to:

1. State the purpose of promotion systems.
2. Distinguish between formal and informal promotion systems.
3. List and describe those organizational variables discussed in this module which affect promotion systems.
4. List and describe those personnel selection system variables discussed in this module which affect promotion.
5. Identify and briefly explain five measures which can be used to determine promotability.
6. Relate transfers to the promotion system and explain the reasons for their use.
7. State and explain your position on publicizing vacancies for either promotions or transfers.
8. Describe any employee promotion system and critically examine it to determine its advantages and disadvantages according to your own values.

OVERVIEW

Objectives	Tasks	Resources	Evaluation
1. State the purpose of promotion systems.	Study Questions 1 & 2	Module Reading: A	Self
2. Distinguish between formal and informal promotion systems.	Study Question 3	Module Reading: A	Self
3. List and describe those organizational variables discussed in this module which affect promotion systems.	Study Question 4	Module Reading: B	Self
4. List and describe those personnel selection system variables discussed in this module which affect promotion systems.	Study Question 5	Module Reading: B	Self
5. Identify and briefly explain five measures which can be used to determine promotability.	Study Questions 7 & 8	Module Reading: C	Self
6. Relate transfers to the promotion system and explain the reasons for their use	Study Question 9 Study Question 10	Module Readings: C, A, Introduction Module Reading: D	Self Self
7. State and explain your position on publicizing vacancies for either promotion or transfers.	Study Questions 11 & 12	Module Reading E	Self

Objectives	Tasks	Resources	Evaluation
8. Describe any employee promotion system and critically examine it to determine its advantages and disadvantages according to your own values.	Study Question 6 Module Assignment	Module Reading: B Personnel Interviews Module Readings & your experience	Self Instructor feedback

A. PROMOTION SYSTEMS

A promotion may be defined as an upward change in position. It will usually include the assumption of greater responsibilities and more complex duties. Normally, supervisory responsibilities will be added or extended and the level of the position within the organizational structure will be increased. A promotion system can be viewed as a pyramid, narrowing from the base, with fewer slots available as you climb to the top. The number of employees seeking upward mobility is usually greater than the number of desirable job slots. Many employees will never have contact with the promotion system and may remain in their initial job level or only experience minimal upward movement during their entire working life. Also, some individuals elect not to participate in a promotion system for one of several possible reasons. First, some workers may fear having to prove their merits again. Second, others may feel they have reached the level where their best work can be performed. Third, another group may be professionals who reject promotion because it would cause them to lose direct contact with their chosen field (e.g., the engineering manager no longer designs and the principal no longer teaches).

For those individuals who are unable to advance because of the limited number of available job slots or for those who do not desire advancement but whose work performance is meritorious, the organization will design other reward systems to supplement promotion systems. These other systems would include benefit plans, extensive leave plans, and financial compensation. Some employers may also create quasi-promotion systems. These systems would require making a salary change but with little or no change in job duties. Such systems attempt to reward the experienced and senior employees whose skills in their present job are valued by the employer. (Compensation Systems are the topic of Module 9.)

Most public jurisdictions will have some type of promotion system. However, in the public sector, there is disagreement and misunderstanding over the definition of promotion systems and the accompanying program form and method. Also, promotion programs are generally not viewed as part of the overall staffing policy. Promotion programs are not coordinated with general selection practices and the interrelatedness of external and internal selection programs is denied. All entry level positions are filled by external applicants, while all higher level positions are to be filled by present employees only.

Certain problems can arise out of this tight, guarantee type of promotion system. Formally, the promotion system is based upon merit; however, in reality, seniority is the operational base of the system. When seniority becomes the watchword, the organization becomes so inbred that the supervisory and management ranks are full of individuals who lack formal training and the administrative knowledge and skills necessary to perform effectively. This situation is also a negative influence on productivity. Employees perform at the minimally acceptable levels. Why should they strive for excellence when longevity rather than the quality of the work product is the most important basis for advancement! This also impacts upon employee morale. Seniority-ridden organizations become stagnated and the performance and spirit of the organization suffers when employees begin to merely "mark time."

In many jurisdictions these problems have caused a fruitless "contest" between merit and seniority for control of the promotion system. Instead, there should be strong attempts made to objectify the process using many criteria, including both merit and seniority. "Every effort can be made to sharpen the modes of appraisal, to objectify the process of selection by pooling judgments and by avoiding concentration of selection authority, and to otherwise make merit as practical, objective, and real as possible." (Stahl, 1971, p. 129) Promotions should be utilized to reward desired employee behavior. Both meritorious performance and organizational loyality (length of service) are desirable and both must be given consideration when making the selection decision.

Flexibility is also a necessary ingredient when building an effective promotion system. More progressive governments and agencies have recognized the need to utilize both internal and external staffing systems at all levels. It will benefit neither the organization nor the employee when a worker is promoted to a position because he or she is simply the best qualified internal applicant, but not really qualified for the job. When suitable internal candidates are lacking, the organization should utilize the external selection process. The system should allow for entrance of new individuals at all levels.

Structuring and implementing promotion systems for public employers is a difficult task. There is no universal solution and promotion systems will vary with the needs and characteristics of the organization. However, where promotion systems are utilized, they should be tailored to the organization and its employees and be objective and flexible.

Promotion systems may be either formal or informal. Formal promotion systems are easily identifiable in that they normally are written (with a series of requirements or steps), published (in organization manuals or handbooks), and monitored (a function usually assigned to a centralized personnel department or agency). For non-managerial positions, the formal promotion system may be based upon adequate rating or performance evaluation when the opening occurs. In other organizations, promotion to non-managerial positions may be accomplished through a bidding system. The open position with the job duties, requirements, and salary is posted on bulletin boards. Those individuals who feel they are qualified may submit their names and/or may be notified of the opening by management. The selection may be based upon meeting the job requirements alone or may be combined with seniority.* Lists of internal applicants may also be generated from employee inventories. In non-unionized situations, if ability and/or seniority are apparently equal for a number of candidates, politics and interpersonal influence become major considerations, even in a rationalized system. (Glueck, 1974, p. 311) For management level positions, formal promotion systems are usually based upon ability. Also, they are somewhat closed in that management decides who is to be considered. Formalized promotion systems are most often found in large and more complex organizations.

Informal promotion systems generally operate at the discretion of those responsible for the open position. Ability, seniority, politics, and interpersonal relationships may all operate within the informal framework. Informal systems are most frequently found in small and less complex organizations. Most of the employees in such organizations know each other, are familiar with many of the jobs, and are usually aware of job vacancies or the need for new positions when they occur. Managers informally approach an employee they wish to promote, and formal interviews are felt unnecessary because the employee's work has been observed.

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*A specified number of years of experience in a certain type of work is often a "job requirement" and should not be confused with "seniority." Seniority does not mean that an employee has x number of years in a certain type of work; it only means that the individual has been employed for y number of years in the organization. Usually, this combination provides that the employee who meets the "job requirements" and has the most organizational "seniority" will get the job.

Certain aspects of informal promotion systems may be found operating within a formal system. Organizational politics and interpersonal relationships often give some employees the edge in the competition for promotion.

STUDY QUESTIONS

1. What is the central goal of promotion systems?

2. What are some of the possible misapprehensions that employees may have regarding a promotion program?

3. What are the essential differences between formal and informal promotion systems.

B. PLANNING PROMOTION SYSTEMS

1. Factors Related to Organizational Structure and Policies. Where promotion systems do exist, several factors will influence the amount of actual promotional opportunities that may be found in the organization. Personnel policies and systems must operate in the context of other organizational variables and these should be recognized to plan for effective promotion systems.

First, according to Stahl (1974), the amount of actual promotional opportunities will be influenced by the kind(s) of career system found in the organization. A closed career system, such as that found in the diplomatic corps, provides for great internal promotional opportunities in that external applicants are only hired at the lowest levels. However, since advancement is based upon longevity and passing through predetermined career steps, promotional opportunities are highly structured and centrally controlled. Individual employees can not influence or change the pattern they must follow. On the other hand, in an open career system where entrance is found at any grade level and is governed only by the candidates' qualifications, the individuals can move in any direction, change fields, or skip over other job levels. The open system is more flexible and the individuals will be able to influence the career path they will follow. [A more detailed discussion of career systems will occur in Module 8.]

The organization's initial recruitment and examination policy is the second factor which should be considered. Are individuals initially hired with an eye to their broader qualifications for future advancement? Or, are they hired under the philosophy that they should develop a career in their initial position? When employees are hired on the basis of very specific skills for a very specific position, the organization has denied itself staffing flexibility. The employee's range of expertise is so narrow that movement is impossible without extensive training. Individuals who possess a broader range of skills may be promoted to other positions within the organization with minimal new training.

Third, the number of key posts which are reserved for political appointments will have an effect on "real" promotional movement. Positions at the top are few in number and, if a significant percentage of these positions are reserved for political appointees, promotional opportunities will be even more limited.

In promotion systems which do allow entrance of new employees above the junior level positions (open careers systems), the technical competence of internal employees will affect their ability to compete for higher positions. This fourth consideration has the greatest implications for employees in technical fields in which the "state of the art" makes significant advances in short periods of time. Persons in these fields must stay abreast of changes (through professional publications and continuing education "refresher" courses) if they want to maintain their promotion potential. For example, mechanical engineers who have been employed by an organization for the last ten years but have not continued to keep up with technical advancements in this field may have difficulty competing with recent colleges graduates also being considered for the same position.

Fifth, the size and heterogeneity of the organization will have an effect on promotional opportunities. The smaller the organization, the fewer will be the available positions. The more similar the composition of the work force, the greater will be the competition for vacant positions.

The elements of dynamism, growth, or change in the organization's program of work is the sixth and final general factor which impacts upon the promotion system. This factor can operate to both broaden or restrict internal advancement. Growth and change can open up new avenues for advancement but, if the growth and change are highly technical in nature or call for new skills and abilities, external recruitment would be necessary.

There are other factors which, also, affect the scope of promotional opportunity. The aforementioned factors were related to organizational structure and policies. The factors which shall be discussed at this point are specifically related to the personnel selection system.

2. Factors Related to the Personnel Selection System. The points which will be discussed in this section are directly related to the personnel selection system and the system's influence upon the scope of promotional opportunity. Keep in mind the fact that the effectiveness of organizational policy will depend upon the systems which are created to make the policy operative.

The following six factors or characteristics of personnel selection systems have been identified by Stahl (1971) as having direct significance on promotion policy and the scope of promotional opportunities. Each factor is presented with a discussion of its implications for promotions.

"Practical and understandable qualification standards for positions." (Stahl, 1971, p. 148)

Sound duties classification is the base upon which the total personnel system is structured. You must know what needs to be done before you attempt to determine who shall do the work. Additionally, the classification system will establish lines or ladders of promotion by grouping jobs in logical relationships to one another. The classification system establishes order, allows for an overview of all work being performed, and indicates the interrelationship of all positions.

"Adequate records and machinery that provide a means for identifying the best candidates within the unit." (Stahl, 1971, p. 148)

Complete data is necessary to allow for a consideration of all qualified and eligible internal applicants. Unless this is an active part of the selection program, the system will be accused of favoritism, and morale and production problems will occur. Adequate records are also critical because a strong data base is needed to make rational decisions. Sometimes testing is utilized as a substitute. However, many experts consider testing a poor and artificial substitute for demonstrated job performance. In designing the data base, factors such as education, additional formal and informal training, special skills, type of work performed, and employee evaluations (previous performance and estimations of potential) should be included. It is also mandatory that mechanisms for the constant updating of records be created or the original data will become useless.

"Good measures of overall competence and potentiality." (Stahl, 1971, p.148)

Internal promotion offers a desirable quality in that it allows for an evaluation of the work performed within the organization by the organization's own employees. This type of analysis should contribute to a high success rate for those who have passed through the internal selection mechanism. However, you must know what factors to consider and how you are going to measure them or objectivity will be lost to subjectivity.

> *"Comprehensive training programs to keep the staff alert to new developments and to prepare promising men and women for advancement and for supervision." (Stahl, 1971, p. 148)*

Stagnation in the work force is detrimental to the organization as a whole. When applied to internal selection systems, it produces the promotion of mediocracy. An organization should, therefore, plan for the in-service development of its employees.

> *"Promotion and transfer across division lines within a bureau, department, or jurisdiction, ensuring as broad a field of selection and opportunity as possible." (Stahl, 1971, p. 148)*

This procedure will increase the range of positions and applicants and keep smaller bureaus or departments from getting too inbred.

Systems which do not allow for the promotion of individuals across department, bureau, or agency lines, may create barriers that will cause the promotion system to become inoperative. Imposing limitation on the scope of internal recruitment, especially for higher level positions, to a confined area (bureau or office) produces inflexibility which will cause:

- a smaller pool of applicants to draw from. When the number of candidates becomes this restricted, it almost promises that the most suitable candidate will not be selected.
- inequality. Promotional systems which do not allow for movement between departments create an unequal balance in advancement opportunities. Smaller units will have fewer opportunities and morale and production problems may occur, while larger units may be forced, by virtue of their size and the large number of openings, to promote individuals who will be less than effective only because they are the only candidates available.
- narrow perspectives. Restricting employees to a total career in one unit prevents management from developing a service-wide perspective.

The reason for and benefits of an open and flexible promotion system appear obvious. Then, why do so many closed systems exist? Three answers to this question may be found. First, closed structures offer the line of least resistance. Many managers and supervisors do not wish to lose a good employee or break up an effective team even if the individual may benefit. The managers may perceive the benefits of promotion for the individual but will feel that the disadvantages they and their units will face (drop in production, recruiting and training a new employee) outweigh the advantages to the individual. Second, the employees themselves may contribute to the development of restrictions by vocalizing their belief that they have a vested right to all promotions within the unit. Third, it may also be found that the nature of the work within one unit is such that many skills are not easily transferable inward or outward.

> *"Clear distinction between clerical jobs, requiring manipulation skills and aptitudes, and executive jobs, requiring superior training, imagination, and ability, so that the latter are not filled by default primarily from the ranks of the former but to go to the employees with the education, the breadth of view and experience, the capacity to deal in ideas as well as with things." (Stahl, 1971, p. 148).*

You must be aware of what is required and what is to be done to assure that the most "suitable" applicant is selected. Sometimes those responsible for making promotional decisions fail to recognize the broad but often subtle differences in positions. Employee x may have worked in the planning department for ten years and may have extensive knowledge of all administrative detail. However, time in the department and knowledge of clerical forms and procedures does not necessarily make that employee qualified for the department manager's position which requires broader general knowledge and the ability to create, develop, and implement new programs.

STUDY QUESTIONS

4. What are the several conditions that affect the extent of an organization's promotion opportunities?

5. Which personnel selection system characteristics will have an impact on the promotional opportunities available within the organization?

6. Discuss a public promotion system with several (2) of its employers. Try to interview employees in different job classifications. Discuss the promotion system in terms of the employee's :

   a. understanding of the system.
   b. feelings about the system.
   c. thoughts about changes they would like to see in the system.

[Please come to the next workshop prepared to discuss and compare your results from this question with other class members and the instructor.]

C. UTILIZING THE PRESENT WORK FORCE

In small organizations it is not difficult to know the number of employees and what they do. However, this is quite a different problem for an agency that employs hundreds of individuals in various departments, for a school system which may employ hundreds of persons who are at different locations, or for a middle or large company which may claim thousands of employees. The methods for discovering and utilizing internal talent may be as varied as the number of employees. Specific techniques may range from systems utilizing simple 3x5 information cards to sophisticated electronic data processing techniques. The degree of complexity of a method is related to the degree of size and complexity of the organization.

Theoretically, the ability to successfully evaluate internal candidates for promotion should be greater than that for external applicants. The employees have been observed in the work environment; more accurate information is available; and the employees are familiar with the organization, its operation, and its products and services. The breadth and accuracy of data on external applicants is usually less because: 1) they generally will only present information they want you to know and will bias it in their favor, 2) it is not possible to observe them on the job, and 3) their skills may not be readily transferable because of the nature of their previous work and the organizational environment within which they functioned.

Generally, five measures for determining promotability of internal applicants are recognized:

1. "comparison of previous education and experience"
2. "comparison of performance within the organization"
3. "trial on the job"
4. "objective testing of skills and aptitudes"
5. "seniority." (Stahl, 1971, p. 153)

Most organizations use a combination of the above measures and may use some for all job categories while restricting the use of others to specific occupational classifications. The characteristics of all five measures shall be described in some detail in the following discussion.

"Comparison of previous education and experience" and *"comparison of performance within the organization"* may be accomplished through the use of the same tools, and comprehensive and current records must be maintained on both. Skills inventories are normally utilized to compile the required data. The inventory may be a simple and manually maintained form listing only the most basic data, or it may contain many variables covering many areas and be plugged into a computerized retrieval system. The parameters of the problem, or what data the system should contain, is a critical decision because the organization will only retrieve that information which was designed into the system. A considered decision must be made as to what personnel data is necessary now and what will probably be required in the future to establish a strong data base from which selection decisions can be made.

An indexing system will facilitate the complex and detailed task of retrieval. Such systems, whether they be electronic tapes, punch cards, or manual index cards, are only devices to assist in narrowing a list down to those candidates who meet the minimum requirements for the position. The personnel specialists are normally responsible for the first sorting and narrowing of the field of eligible and qualified candidates for promotion. The development of the list of candidates to be forwarded to the appointing official may be prepared by either the personnel specialist or a committee or panel (depending upon the level of the position) knowledgeable of the organization and the open position. Committees and panels will usually allay any suspicions employees may have on how the list was constructed. The composition of the group may vary with the type of position being filled. The number of names submitted to the appointing authority may also vary with the type of position but normally would range from two to six.

"Trial on the job" is theoretically the best technique for assessing the promotional potential of employees. Temporary assignments to higher positions may be achieved by utilizing vacations and other leaves of absence. This may take a few years to allow for all of those who are possible candidates to participate on enough occasions to allow for an analysis of their performance. Retirements with sufficient advance notice also provide an opportunity for individuals to rotate through portions of the job by "assisting" with various duties.

On the other hand, there are very practical and serious limitations to this type of system. Where there are a large number of possible candidates and few higher positions, the system becomes logistically difficult. If you should then decide to single out a smaller number of candidates, others may become suspicious and resentful of the system. A second problem is the "one of a kind" position. This type of position is usually unique and highly technical by nature, and the promotion pool at hand would not normally include individuals with adequate backgrounds. The third problem is presented by the unplanned opening. If the position must be filled immediately and there are a number of qualified candidates on hand, trial on the job (or rotation of all candidates through the job) is needlessly time consuming and counter productive for the department.

"Objective Testing of skills and aptitudes" is a promotion tool which should only be utilized in conjunction with other factors such as: 1) evaluations of past performance, 2) the candidates interest and/or goals, and 3) any special achievements or training the candidates have experienced. Testing, in conjunction with the aforementioned factors, is

generally utilized when candidates were not able to demonstrate the required skills in a working situation. It is also utilized when present employees have experience in only somewhat related types of work. This system may be utilized by large organizations where a number of similar positions may be filled at the same time. Finally, testing may be utilized where manual skills are required and may be evaluated through the use of a job sample. [The nature and limitations of written tests are discussed more thoroughly in Module 4].

"Seniority" or time within the organization is a measure which can operate alone or in conjunction with any of the previously discussed measures. When seniority is the sole criterion, the employee with the longest time on the job receives the promotion. When seniority is used in conjunction with one of the other factors, it will operate to break a tie. If two employees have similar tests scores or previous education and experience, the employee with the greatest seniority will be awarded the position. The use of seniority promotes organizational loyality and stability. Employees know that if they perform at an acceptable level and "put in their time" they will be rewarded through promotion. The exclusive use of seniority has many negative facets in that it does not reward individual initiative and above average performance. It operates to exclude newer employees who may have more up-to-date training and skills. Organizational initiative and vitality can be lost when seniority becomes the main consideration.

One final word at this point on promotion systems is needed to maintain a proper perspective. Not all employees are interested in climbing the career ladders. Promotion systems should take care not to overemphasize "getting ahead." Many competent and highly skilled and valued employees are content in their present positions. When a promotion program is oversold, it may leave such employees feeling inadequate and decrease their performance or force them to make an upward move which proves negative for both the employee and the employer.

STUDY QUESTIONS

7. Identify the five measures used to determine promotability.

8. What are the arguments for and against using seniority as the basis for promotion?

9. Why is moderation the watchword in any promotion policy?

D. REASSIGNMENT AND TRANSFER

An individual's movement within an organization may also be lateral or outward. Horizontal or lateral changes are those where a change of duties will occur, but there is no accompanying change in rank or pay. They may be utilized for the following reasons:

1. "Organizational demands (expansion, contraction, shifting policies or methods, seasonal loads, etc.)."
2. "The need for the further development of the individual. An actual job has the best training value."
3. "Making better use of an employee's skills."
4. "Transfers may also be utilized to correct errors that were made during the selection process and placements in which the incumbents are unhappy." (Stahl, 1971, pp. 158-159)

There are many similarities between transfer and promotion systems. As a matter of fact, a promotion often also involves a transfer. If the employee's promotion is not within his/her present department, the employee has in effect received first a promotion and second a transfer. The purpose of transfer and promotion systems is similar. Both are designed with the goal of matching an employee to a job in a way which will benefit both the individual and the organizations. We find that a good records system is as necessary for rational reassignment as it is for promotion. The same data is necessary for both types of movement. Transfer and promotion systems can share a common data base and data processing system.

The advantages and disadvantages of publicizing promotions (following section) also holds for transfers. However, another benefit that can be derived is that publicizing transfer information allows the employees to transfer to jobs where they can gain new skills or expand present skills which will in the future enhance their opportunity for promotion. In other words, the employees can work at constructing their own career ladders.

STUDY QUESTIONS

10. Why are horizontal channels of mobility as important as vertical ones?

E. PUBLICIZING VACANCIES

As stated previously, the major characteristic of a formal promotion system is that it is written and publicized. Employees should be made aware of the procedural steps of the existing lines of advancement, requirements of positions, and the type of preparation and training available. This can also apply to transfers. If the organization is large and complex, it often becomes necessary to run transfer and promotion systems in a parallel fashion for both to be effective.

However, there is much dispute over whether vacancies should be publicized as they occur. The arguments for posting vacancies within the organization are:

1. No information retrieval system is perfect. Mechanical and human errors are bound to occur. Publicizing vacancies allows those individuals who have been mistakenly overlooked to submit their names for consideration.

2. Employees may be suspicious of unpublicized promotions.

3. The knowledge that the organization is not static and that promotions and transfers do occur can act as an incentive to employees.

4. If unqualified applicants should come forward, it is not difficult or overly time-consuming to weed them out. In fact, their rejection may be made positive in that the individuals' deficiencies and the means to overcome them can be discussed.

5. Discrimination in promotion and transfer may be avoided.

The civil rights legislation does concern itself with the equity of promotion and transfer systems. The press and the courts have been full of cases where race, sex, age, race, religion, and national origin have been used as a criterion in promotion or transfer. Examples of discrimination in promotion systems may be seen through the following:

1. Employment groups, departments, etc. in which the employees are 95% female, but all of the supervisors are male.

2. Agencies which are located in and service minority group communities but whose employees are not from the minority group of that community.

The myths of the racial and sexual differences have already been exploded. In a democratic society, all individuals must be allowed access to and the opportunity to compete, on an equal basis, for promotion and transfers. When vacancies are posted, all employees are given equal knowledge of what positions are available. The system is "open" and positions are not filled secretly by individuals who meet "special" (discriminatory) unwritten requirements (no females or blacks).

The arguments against posting vacancies within the organization are:

1. "The record system is so well devised that all qualified persons are known to the personnel office.
2. General publicity produces such a mass of applications as to handicap seriously the selection process.
3. Knowledge of vacancies to which they are not appointed merely makes for unrest and dissatisfaction among large numbers of employees.
4. Many able employees are not disposed to apply when the initiative is left entirely to them." (Stahl, 1971, p. 157)

STUDY QUESTIONS

11. What are the arguments for and against publicizing vacant positions?

12. Do you feel position vacancies should be publicized within an organization as standard procedure? Why? Discuss your feelings as an individual and describe what kind of notification system (if any) you would prefer.

    [This is for your own consideration and reflection on your feelings.]

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Glueck, William. Personnel: A Diagnostic Approach. Dallas, Texas: Business Publications Inc., 1974.

Stahl, Glen. Public Personnel Administration. New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1971.

ASSIGNMENT

The following question should be answered as completely as possible on separate paper. Two copies of your responses should be mailed to the instructor. One copy will be returned to you with the instructor's comments and the other will be retained as part of your course record.

Describe a public employee promotion system utilizing the factors and organizational characteristics discussed in this module. Then suggest those aspects of the system that seem to you:

a) *to contribute most to the needs of the organization and the employees and,*

b) *to require some change(s).*

Be sure to give your reasons for the analysis that you make.

NOTE: *Please provide a brief description of the organizing you are discussing, including such data as the organization's purpose and product or service, the number of departments, the number of employee's, etc.*

STUDY QUESTIONS

Answer Key

1. The most essential goal of any promotion system should be to reward desirable employee behavior. This means that both merit and seniority become meaningful criteria for determining promotability since each represents desired behaviors for the organizations.

2. a. Encroachments may occur from outside the organization.
   b. Too many decisions are capricious, and favorites are given preference.
   c. Merit is an unobtainable illusion.
   d. Employees become displeased with being passed over and having to rely upon managerial judgment.

3. a. Formal systems are written, published, and monitored, whereas informal systems act at the discretion of managers and supervisors.
   b. Formal systems are generally found in large, complex organizations, but informal systems generally exist in small, relatively simple organizations.
   c. Employees who meet posted requirements may submit their names for consideration for promotion in formal systems. In informal systems, managers may individually approach employees whom they think qualified and would like to promote.

4. a. Kinds of career systems that exist.
   b. The initial recruitment and examination policy.
   c. The number of key posts that are reserved for political appointment.
   d. The proportion of career-type appointments from the outside above junior levels.
   e. The size and heterogenity of the organization.
   f. The elements of dynamism, growth, or damage in the organizations program of work.

5. a. A clearly stated classification system of job duties and prerequisites which suggests career ladders.
   b. Record keeping and retrieval systems which facilitate identification of all qualified candidates.
   c. Reliable evaluative measures of ability and potential which can help to make sound, informed decisions.
   d. Training programs which contribute to planned staff and organizational development.
   e. Inter-divisional movement which opens up increased promotion opportunities, as opposed to the more limited movement only within a division or department.
   f. Clear distinctions between classes or types of jobs which should help to identify appropriate or inappropriate directions for movement based on skill and ability.

6. (No answer: This question will be used for a workshop discussion.)

7. a) Comparison of previous education and experience.
   b) Comparison of performance within the organization.
   c) Trial on the job.
   d) Objective testing of skills and aptitudes.
   e) Senority.

8. For Seniority

Will avoid favoritism
Avoids disgruntled employees
Will reward employees for their loyality and devotion

Against Senority

A Sugar Plum for employees
Will not assure that the best employee gets the job
Stagnation will occur.
Organization will become inbred
Will cause dead ends or unfairness
Employees feel they should be guaranteed movement but don't have training, skills, etc. necessary

9. a. Some employees are very content and benefit the organization where they are.
   b. Employees may feel inadequate if promotions are overemphasized.
   c. Promotion systems may create undue-pressure to advance.

10. a. Assists in meeting organizational demands.
    b. Provides training value for employees.
    c. Makes better use of employee skills.
    d. Corrects initial selection errors.
    e. Allows employees to help to construct their own career ladders.

11. For Publicizing Vacancies:

No information retrevial system is perfect
Employees may be suspicious of unpublicized promotions
Positive feedback to unqualified employees may be provided if they show an interest in a position
Discrimination may be more easily avoided

Against Publicizing Vacancies:

All qualified persons are known
Volumes handicaps process
Unrest and dissatisfaction among employees follows
Qualified employees may not come forward

12. (No answer)

PA 848
MANAGEMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCES

MODULE 7:
TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT

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UNIVERSITY EXTERNAL STUDIES PROGRAM

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MODULE 7: TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT

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MODULE 7: TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT

KEY TERMS AND CONCEPTS

- Training
- Apprenticeship Training
- Vestibule Training
- On-the-Job Training
- Off-the-Job Training
- Career Development
- Career Ladder
- Management Development

INTRODUCTION

Training and Career Development are relatively recent personnel functions which represent a response to the humanistic trend in personnel administration. It must be recognized from the outset, therefore, that both of these functions can and should be expected to change and develop with experience and practice. Both training and career development programs share certain characteristics, benefits, and problems. They are, nevertheless, not exactly the same despite their similarities and areas of overlap. As you study this module, please pay careful attention to the shared and unique characteristics of each function and note the interrelationships between the training and career development functions.

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

At the completion of this module, you should be able to:

1. State and describe the goals of employee training programs as presented in this module.
2. Identify and differentiate among the four main types of training programs.
3. Summarize the conclusions which can be drawn from cost/benefit analyses of training programs.
4. Differentiate between training and career development.
5. Explain the reasons commonly given for career development programs.
6. Outline the major steps in creating an employee's career development plan.
7. Develop a career development plan for yourself.
8. Describe or outline any training program in terms of its goals, type, methods, and appropriations.

OVERVIEW

Objectives	Tasks	Resources	Evaluation
1. State and describe the goals of employee training programs as presented in this module	Study Questions 1, 2	Module Reading: A	Self
2. Identify and differentiate among the four main types of training programs.	Study Questions 3, 4, 5	Module Reading: B	Self
3. Summarize the conclusions which can be drawn from cost/benefit analyses of training	Study Question 6	Module Reading: B	Self
4. Differentiate between training and career development.	Study Question 7	Module Reading: C	Self
5. Explain the reasons commonly given for career development programs.	Study Questions 8, 11, 12, 13	Module Reading: C, D, E	Self
6. Outline the major steps in creating an employee's career development plan.	Study Question 9	Module Reading: C	Self
7. Develop a career development plan for yourself.	Study Question 10	Module Reading: C	Instructor Feedback (not for grading)
8. Describe or outline any training program in terms of its goals, type, methods and appropriations.	Module Assignment, Part 1	Module Readings and Your Experience	Instructor Feedback

A. THE PURPOSE OF TRAINING

At one time it could be said that an individual's first job was his/her last job. Today, in both the public and private sectors, this situation has changed. During their work careers, employees may find themselves working for various employers, changing or expanding their vocational fields, and dealing with new products or services. Large scale changes in technology and the market-place have led to changed demands for goods and services, and both organizations and individuals must meet these new demands. Training and development of employees is one means by which organizations can maintain up-to-date capabilities in the face of changing demands.

Employee training is a moderately well-developed function in the private sector where it was recognized that training filled the gap between increasingly sophisticated jobs in volatile organizations and employees' skills. The public sector, by contrast, resisted training as late as the 1940's. The feeling prevailed that employees hired under the merit system were qualified from entry for all present and future job demands. However, the following factors forced a change in the public sector's position:

1. Employees are not recruited for one specific job but for a category or type of position. An accounting position with agency A may be sufficiently different from a similar position with agency B to require special training.
2. Public programs are not static, and training is needed to adjust employees to required changes.
3. Many occupations (policeman, tax assessors, mail carriers) are found only in the public service, and our educational institutions do not provide the necessary training. The public employer must fill this gap.
4. Occupational fields evolve and training is necessary to keep specialists up-to-date.
5. It is more efficient to optimize the skills of present employees through training than to constantly recruit new employees to meet new demands.
6. Structured training programs create more employee enthusiasm and participation than requiring the employees to learn when and where they can.
7. Training programs can be structured to convey the aims and functions of the organization. Such programs are generally more effective and better received than "policy statements."

> 8. Training of some kind always takes place in any work situation. Formal training programs are more efficient, effective, and systematic. (Stahl, 1971, p. 205)

Training may be defined as any act which is designed to increase the skills and effectiveness of employees. Training programs are generally designed to develop the skills of the employees and improve the operation of the organization. There are four overall purposes of training which warrant discussion.

1. Induction and Orientation. This goal is to introduce new employees to the organization, to the conditions of employment, and to their work.
2. Performance Improvement (refresher courses). The goal is to keep employees up-to-date in their respective fields. It may also be remedial in that areas of poor performance may be addressed.
3. Broadening Staff Usefulness. This goal is related to performance improvement but is more complex. Its aim is to extend the utility of employees without particular regard to their fields of concentration. It can include broadening of skills for the present job or the acquisition of new skills for another job.
4. Developing Top Leadership. The goal of training at this level is to assist the executive in the development of new insights, provide an opportunity to exchange insights and problems with others at his level, and to allow time for him to reflect upon his role. (Stahl, 1971, pp. 217-218)

STUDY QUESTIONS

1. What reasons are given for including training programs as part of the personnel function by organizations (public and private)?

2. For what purposes should training be considered in the following situations?

   a. Employee Brown needs to be aware of general economic and labor patterns, federal regulations, and industry trends to remain effective.

   b. Employees Smith and Benson have worked for seven years as research assistants in a county health department. Their department is responsible for disease control. There have been new research techniques developed in the past year.

   c. A group of new employees has reported for their first day of work at the vocational rehabilitation center.

   d. The supervisor of the accounts receivable department has determined that two of his senior accounting clerks have supervisory potential.

B. TRAINING PROGRAMS

When is training needed? If training programs, with monitoring systems, do not already exist in the organization, certain conditions will signal the need for training. The most common conditions are: low production, slow service, low mobility of personnel, supervisory problems, lack of coordination, client complaints, and high turnover. (Stahl, 1971, p. 213) Many of these problems can be identified through general observation; however, a careful survey and collection of hard data will be more effective. Questionnaires and/or interviews with employees and supervisors or a general survey of client satisfaction with goods or services may be utilized.

Once the organization has determined that there is a need for training, it must then decide what type of training program will best serve its purpose. Apprenticeship, vestibule, on-the-job, and off-the-job training are the four most commonly used types of training. Each functions to meet a particular need. The organization should investigate each type of training to determine which one program or combination of programs will be most useful in remedying the organization's problems and achieving its goals. The characteristics of the four most common training programs are the following.

1. Apprenticeship training. The Apprenticeship Act of 1937 created many types of apprentice programs in the United States. Generally, such programs require the individual to pass both classroom learning and practical on-the-job experience. The apprenticeship period can run from one to seven years. The salary rate is lower than that of a journeyman and when the length of the training period is great, a wage progression is normally provided. Apprenticeship programs are used predominantly within the skilled trades.

2. Vestibule training. This program requires the trainees to learn the job in a simulated work environment. They learn under supervision until the trainer determines that they may be placed in the actual work area. A training salary is generally established and the length of the program will vary with the type of skill being taught.

   For example, an agency has a small print shop. Printer trainees are hired and placed in training programs using printing equipment but the work produced (printed) is only a replica of actual forms and is not intended for use within the agency. This type of training is used infrequently and is very similar to on-the-job training. It is found where training in a simulated work environment is necessary to gain the requisite skills, but it avoids the mistakes that may occur in on-the-job training which would prove too costly and interfere with departmental production.

3. On-the-job training. This is the most widely utilized of the training approaches. Each trainee is placed in a real work situation under the close guidance of a supervisor or experienced employee until it is determined that the trainee possesses a sufficient level of skill to perform the job independently. Care must be taken because, if not run properly, this program may cause large costs in terms of damaged equipment, dissatisfied customers, and poorly trained employees. (Glueck, 1974, p. 331) Supervisors (and any employees used as trainees) must be convinced of the importance and need for training to assure that they provide proper training. The length of the training period will vary with the degree of complexity of the skill to be mastered.

4. Off-the-job training. This type of training is generally conducted in organization classrooms or vocational/technical schools. Organizations with the biggest training programs often use off-the-job training. This type of program is highly formalized, costly, and is usually structured to the organization's specific needs. Many of these programs are used to teach present employees new skills or refine and expand present skills. Technical and scientific organizations which must deal with rapid technological change will use off-the-job training to keep their employees abreast of latest developments.

Once it has been decided what will be taught and what type of training will be used, the appropriate training methods and aids should be selected. There are certain factors which should be considered when determining what methods and aids to use. The decision should be based upon the following:

1. The number of trainees for each program.
2. The relative cost per trainee for each method.
3. The availability of training materials in various forms.
4. The relative efficiency in learning. (Glueck, 1974, p. 333)

Training methods include the use of lectures, conferences, and programmed instruction. Generally, job instruction training should include these four basic aspects:

1. Preparation should include a review of training goals and objectives. All materials and equipment should be prepared in advance.

2. Training procedures should be explained and demonstrations of what is to be done should be conducted.

3. The trainee should explain the steps to be followed and then perform the task.

4. Practice of the tasks by the trainee should be done under the supervision and guidance of the instructor.

Movies, slides, tapes, and other audiovisual aids (exhibits and posters, flip charts, magnetic boards, closed-circuit T.V., and simulated work environments) are utilized as supplemental training aids.

Having made the decisions about the need for training, the type of training program, and the selection of specific methods and aids, it is necessary to make some estimates of the projected costs and benefits of the training program to the organization which may be compared later to actual costs and benefits (cost/benefit analysis). This, of course, is much easier said than done.

As usual, costs are generally easy to compute. They would include the direct costs of training (trainee salaries or stipends, material, and lost productivity) plus the indirect costs (a share of administrative overhead of the personnel department). (Glueck, 1974, p. 335) Benefits are much more difficult to project or even calculate. Improvements in products or services may be estimated and later checked through the use of opinion surveys or by comparing productivity of groups receiving training with control groups receiving no training. These changes in performance must then be related to dollar savings or increased revenues to the organization--a difficult task at best. Since it is difficult to project or measure the benefits which may be said to accrue from the use of training programs and since their costs may be substantial, why is their use expanding? The answer may lie in the recent trend toward a more humanistic approach to management. This approach recognizes the workers as a resource which requires that they be developed to their fullest potential. This approach also recognizes that much of what it may achieve is not easily measured in dollar amounts, but training does deal with human beings and fulfills some perceived social and moral responsiblities of employers toward their employees.

Before concluding this section on training programs, a number of summary statements should be made. Employee training is a relatively new personnel function -- one which is designed to help employees expand present skills and develop new abilities to meet present and future organizational job needs. Both the individual and the organization will benefit from the increase in the employee's effectiveness that training programs provide.

The type of training an organization will utilize will depend upon its individual needs and goals. However, some major conclusions regarding training can be drawn:

1. The demand for training was caused by technological change, changes in the marketplace, and new demands for goods and services.
2. Training needs can be determined by assessing organizational weaknesses.
3. Training programs can be structured to meet various organizational objectives and goals.

STUDY QUESTIONS

3. Describe the various types of training programs.

4. List the training methods and aids.

5. Why is it necessary to have supervisors and managers understand, accept, and know how to fulfill their basic responsibility to train subordinates? [NOTE: Answering this question will require you to make some inferences from the Module Reading.]

6. What kinds of conclusions can be reached about training programs by conducting cost/benefit analyses of them?

C. CAREER DEVELOPMENT

Training and career development are often described as if they were a single subject. Individuals frequently state: "Oh yes, our organization has a training and development program." Training and career development offer many similarities and are interrelated, but they are not the same.

"The process of creating a pattern of jobs in a series of steps from the initial job to retirement is called career development." (Glueck, 1974, p. 295) Career development is concerned with the development of individuals and their careers, and the primary beneficiaries of this type of program are the individuals. Career development is a long-range process which directly benefits the individual and may or may not benefit the organization. The program which is designed cooperatively by the employee and the personnel specialist could generally be followed by the individual no matter where that individual is employed. These programs are not reactionary, but, rather, they represent a long-range planned process. Training programs can be defined as reactionary in that they are a response to an immediate organizational need.

To summarize career development, a) it is a planned process, b) it covers the length of a career, and c) the primary beneficiary is the individual.

If the employee is the primary beneficiary of career development programs, why then do organizations implement such programs? Of the many reasons why organizations have instituted career development programs, some are altruistic while others are self-serving; some can be a combination of the preceding two reasons while others reflect the influence of external sources.

When the organization creates career development programs because of its concern for others, it has generally recognized the following:

1. Employees are interested in developing their careers. People live longer today and spend a major portion of their time working. Employees are becoming more concerned with doing something they enjoy.
2. Humanistic approaches to management are becoming more influential. When the organization operates on the basis of a humanistic philosophy, the development of the individual becomes one of its goals.
3. Employees are entitled to satisfaction and dignity. When individuals are satisfied with their life work, they are provided with meaning and dignity. "Implicit is the idea that most employees prefer to feel that their talents are well used in the work place." (Glueck, 1974, p. 264)

Implementing career development programs may also prove beneficial to the organization for these reasons.

1. By developing its employees the organization will reach its own goals. One way for the organization to achieve its own goals is to assure that the employees can achieve their individual long-range goals. When the employees work toward and satisfy their long-range goals, they are positive and productive, and, in turn, an organizational goal has been achieved.
2. The organization will benefit from lower turnover and reduced replacement costs. When a career is tied to the organization by developing a pattern of jobs within the context of the organization and with the assistance of the organization's personnel specialist, it is less likely that the employee will leave. If the organization recognizes that employees have become more interested and concerned with what their future work will be and where it will lead, it can use this knowledge to reduce turnover.

> Organizations that want to retain the best of their employees develop careers for them. (Glueck, 1974, p. 259)

A combined reason for establishing a career development program would be the following:

> Career development programs reduce the hoarding of personnel. Some supervisors hoard employees when they fear the employee will be too difficult to replace, or a new employee will make the department appear ineffective for a period of time, or the supervisor does not want to break up a good work-team. This practice is detrimental to both the employee and the employer. It causes frustration in employees who desire advancement or a general broadening of their skills, and the employee's response to this situation (resignation or drop in morale and productivity) will be harmful to the organization. The organization may also suffer in that when the employees are not being utilized to their fullest potential the organization is not maximizing its human resources. Career development programs assist in breaking up such bottlenecks by making supervisors aware of management concerns for employee utilization with the formalization of career development programs and by involving a third party (personnel specialist) who will assist in resolving such problems amicably.

An external factor such as the following can also influence the organization's decision to create a career development program:

> The government imposes some guidelines. Civil rights legislation and affirmative action requirements and regulations may require that the employer create career development systems to assure compliance with the equal opportunity rights of all employees.

The purpose of a career development program is to assist individuals in recognizing long-range goals and developing plans to reach their goals. The structure of a career development program is somewhat broad and loose since it must be flexible in order to respond to many diverse situations and demands.

The structure of a career development program is built upon counseling. The counseling is initially diagnostic; that is, it focuses on identifying a) what career the employees wishes to pursue and b) what direction the employee desires the career to take. The employee and the personnel specialist focus on career objectives and short- and long-range goals. The employee conducts a self-apprasial on interests and previous experience and education. A review of previous supervisory and any other general appraisals is also conducted.

The employee, with the assistance of the counselor, now begins to plan the steps which are necessary to reach the career goal. The steps may require the employee to pursue a first or additional college degree. (This is normally accomplished part-time. However, some individuals will request a leave of absence or even terminate their employment to complete this as soon as possible. Many organization's offer tuition reimbursement programs to assist the employee in completing this costly step. Tuition programs will be discussed in more detail in Module 9, Compensation.) The analysis of the employee's background in conjunction with the career goal may show that only a few specialized courses to learn new techniques in the field are necessary. Vocational and/or technical schools may also be recommended. The employee may also be advised to attend professional seminars and subscribe to related professional journals. In some instances, the employer may be able to provide on-the-job training which would give the employee the requisite skills.

The employee and counselor may also plot out a possible career ladder for the employee within the organization. This is not to say that the employee will move as planned in the career chart. It is only a guide to provide direction. If the organization has a position classification system, the jobs within the organization can be reviewed to plan target career movement. [Position classification will be discussed in detail in Module 8.]

The following example is an analysis of possible career targets and the planned steps necessary to reach the goal of senior accountant.

Background Review

Employee Jones:

Present position: accounting clerk

Present educational background:

- High School diploma (academic)
- Completed two years of college with 6 credits in Basic Accounting, 6 credits in Statistics

Work Experience:

- Has been with the organization for two years
- First position as Bookkeeping clerk - 1 year 3 months
- Present position of Accounting Clerk - 9 months
- No other work experience

Employee Self Analysis

Enjoys working with figures. Feels she is a problem solver. Enjoys detail work and is usually very accurate. Interested in a position which could utilize her mathematical ability but would prefer work with more challenge than basic accounting. Is interested in and feels she has the ability to deal with complex problems. Is very organized and inquisitive and wants to plan solutions for problems she identifies. Enjoys working with people and feels she has the necessary interpersonal skills to supervise and develop a team effort.

Supervisor's previous performance Evaluation (Summary--complete record in employee file)

6 month evaluation as Bookkeeping clerk:

Employee is cooperative, follows instructions well.
Was very willing to learn new tasks.
Production and accuracy are excellent.
Hesitant to bring forward errors others on team may have committed. This may change with more experience in working with a team effort.

1 year evaluation as Bookkeeping clerk:

Employee is cooperative, productive, and reasonably accurate.
Has asked for additional responsibility
Very quick in learning new assignments
Has a tendancy to become bored with more mundane tasks but work is always acceptable.
Has become a lead member of the team.
Would recommend for promotion.

6 month evaluation accounting clerk:

Employee is cooperative and follows instructions well.
Very willing and quick to learn new duties.
Is able to perform complex tasks which require basic accounting knowledge.
Is not pressured by problems and enjoys tracking down the source.
Handwriting a bit of a problem and have had to ask employee to be more careful.

Agency Fiscal Job Classification Structure

Class Code	Class Title	Salary Range (Monthly)
0101	Records Clerk	$400 - $525
0102	Bookkeeping Clerk	$450 - $575
0103	Accounting Clerk	$500 - $650
0104	Senior Accounting Clerk	$560 - $775
0105	Finance Assistant	$625 - $875
0121	Accountant I	$725 - $950
0122	Accountant II	$850 - $1050
0123	Senior Accountant	$1000 - $1300
0124	Asst. Comptroller	$1375 - $1750

Employee Career Plan

Education - Complete B.S. in Accounting part time (evenings) using tuition reimbursement. Will probably take three to three-and-one-half years.

Will request supervisor's approval to be included in groups of employees attending professional seminars which may be beneficial.

Progress Chart - Sr. Acct. Clerk - should be able to be promoted to this position with one additional year experience and education.

Accountant I - should be able to be promoted to this position with two years as Sr. Acct. Clerk and/or completion of B.S. in accounting.

Accountant II - Should be promoted to this position with two to three years as Accountant I

Senior Accountant - should be promoted to this position with two to three years as Accountant II and some attendance at professional seminars.

TOTAL TIME - 7 TO 9 YEARS

It is extremely difficult to perform cost/benefit analysis on a developing function like career development. In general, costs can be analyzed in terms of immediate training costs and lost productivity for training and counseling. Benefits can be analyzed in terms of lower turnover and replacement costs, and attitude surveys can be given to employees to determine the effect of career development on employee morale and organizational loyality. Program participants can be identified and the success or failure of their careers over a long period of time can be charted. It would be recognized that career development is a relatively recent function and "the paths which employees follow in progressing upward in companies are universally understood but seldom recorded." (Glueck, 1974, p. 268)

Analyses of the successes and failures of such programs are still needed. The payoffs for career development appear impossible to measure, and proponents of such programs ask us to accept on faith that these programs will contribute to the quality of our work and leisure lives.

Career development is a new personnel function whose costs and benefits are not fully known. However, these systems are perceived as satisfying both individual and organizational goals. It will take additional time, experience, and study to determine whether career development will become a permanent personnel function.

STUDY QUESTIONS

7. What is the difference between training and career development?

8. What are the four foci for reasons for incorporating career development programs as part of the personnel function?

9. From the discussion of the creation of a career development program, select what seem to be the major steps of such a program.

10. Structure a career development program for yourself and indicate why the stated goals and methods were chosen.

D. CAREER DEVELOPMENT FOR MANAGEMENT POSITIONS IN THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT

The federal government is our largest single employer and an employer which the public views as being more humanistic and progressive in its treatment of employees. This article discusses why management development is necessary in the federal service and what may be done to encourage its use.

● "The State of Management Development in the Federal Service" by Raymond Pomerleau

THE STATE OF MANAGEMENT DEVELOPMENT IN THE FEDERAL SERVICE

RAYMOND POMERLEAU

"Prevailing theories and practices of management education in the federal service, with a look towards future developments."

At the heart of the federal personnel system today is the need to increase the supply of managerial talent. Given the rapidly increasing interest and concern with management development, well beyond the interest in human relations training of the forties and fifties, it is surprising to note that it remains one of the less generally understood aspects of public personnel administration. A convincing explanation for this state of affairs can be attributed to its woefully undeveloped theoretical foundation. A quick survey of the burgeoning literature immediately reveals a bewildering variety of forms, innumerable philosophies and approaches, and the emergence of issues and questions unaccompanied by persuasively argued explanations or prescriptions. While the literature contains many assertions, derived mostly from common sense and from practitioners, the lore of management development theory has never been systematically subjected to rigorous scrutiny. While the issuance of the CSC-OMB "Guidelines for Executive Development in the Federal Service"[1] will not provide us with the alpha and omega for management development, the federal government's explicit commitment towards the establishment and the operation of programs for developing federal career executives can nevertheless be viewed as a promising beginning.

The Meaning of Management Development

The literature on management development reveals various meanings of the term. Some scholars and practitioners view it broadly as "the growth of the individual in all respects, both within and without the confines of his job,"[2] emphasizing that growth comes largely from within the man himself only if real opportunity is presented to him. Others define management development in systemic terms as an activity which involves the interaction of man, job, and environment in ways which are consciously and intentionally designed to accelerate the development of managers. For purposes of this article, we will view management development pretty much as House[3] does: as any planned effort to improve managerial performance by imparting information, increasing skills, conditioning attitudes, and broadening perspectives. Implicit in this process is the assumption that activities

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would, in the main, be purposefully geared for maximum applicability to the job.

Training, Education, Development

Another interesting revelation to be found in the literature on management development is the degree of confusion regarding the meaning of the terms "training," "education," and "development." Campbell, *et al.*,[4] maintain that the terms are often given somewhat different meanings, while Nadler[5] asserts that the terms are usually employed synonymously. Since certain semantic distinctions do exist in the literature, a cursory exploration of these discriminations is in order.

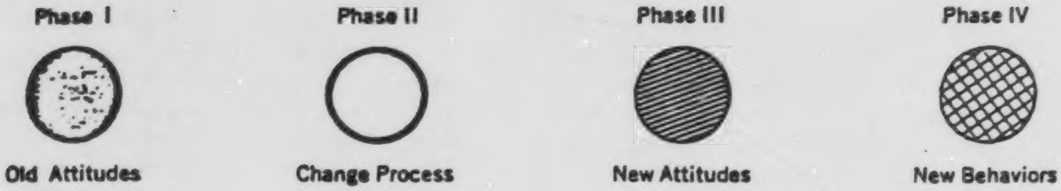
If we can agree that the object of a management development program is to provide a manager with opportunities to increase his capabilities, to enlarge his understanding, and to modify his behavior in order to improve his overall effectiveness, then the entire enterprise is one which consists mainly of development. Therefore, training and education become a part of the process. Training, as a part of the development process, consists of the acquisition of those specific skills and techniques which are closely and immediately related to work performance. Education refers to that part of the development process which seeks to prepare individuals for a future, but identifiable, career position within an agency. The distinction is expressed more cogently by Glazer, who says that "training serves to minimize individual differences, while education seeks to maximize individual differences."[6]

Fundamentally, *the explicit purpose of management development programs in the federal service is to extend the span of utility for those managers who may be confronted with the imminence of premature obsolescence; and to prepare high potential mid-managers whose past performance has been outstanding for assuming higher managerial functions*. The management development process is concerned with the need to influence or change the attitudes of its incumbent executives and high potential mid-managers in ways which the agency regards as in his own and the agency's best interests. This need to foster among managers a greater receptivity to change is to enable them to accommodate more readily to changing policies and technologies as well as to cope better with the environments in which they function. The management development process, then, should not be restricted to learning only those skills, acquiring only that body of knowledge, or adopting only those attitudes which are closely related to the job. It should, rather, additionally incorporate the opportunity to expand one's horizon in a manner which will contribute to the entire gestalt of the management process. A useful theoretical perspective designed to broaden a manager's perspective has been suggested by Schein.[7] He states that the process of changing an individual's set of attitudes or perspectives in an organizational milieu can be portrayed in three phases: unfreezing, changing, and refreezing. Merrell's[8] "transchange theory," like Schein's, involves a sequential process which specifically relates to the antecedent phase, the changing phase, and the consequent phase, or changes in real social situations. Roughly illustrated, the model might look like Figure 1. Although this process of change model cannot predict the precise nature of the "new behaviors," it can nevertheless attempt to guard against having individual managers returning to their agencies in a newly frozen stage. It can encourage, instead, a fluid state which would make them amenable to the continuous process of self-regeneration.

Theories of Management Development

There are increasing numbers of entrepreneurs in the management education enterprise, each advancing his own brand of learning experience accompanied by a wide variety of suitable methodologies. This immediately suggests the difficulty of surveying the literature with the expectation of capturing in any comprehensive

FIGURE 1:
PROCESS OF CHANGE



fashion all the various hues and shades of the management education activity. As to be expected, the theories of management development are quite varied—ranging all the way from simply placing an individual in the organization and leaving the rest to chance—to elaborate plans consciously designed to instill in managers the experiences, the skills, and the attitudes necessary to meet the demands of the organization.

As a point of departure, we can concur with McGregor[9] when he says that management development cannot be left entirely to chance. He alludes to two distinct alternative approaches: (1) the manufacturing approach, and (2) the agricultural approach. The manufacturing approach, in the sense that it seeks to produce managerial talent, is, according to McGregor, a natural concomitant of management by direction and control, whereby the demands of the organization become paramount.[10] This approach to management, McGregor admits, does many things to and for the manager, generally with the tacit assumption that what is good for the organization is good for him. His alternative approach to management development is concerned with nurturing talent rather than fabricating it. The fundamental assumption behind this approach is that the manager will grow into what he is capable of becoming, provided his environment is propitious or supportive of that growth culture.

Building upon McGregor's initial thrust, Gellerman[11] introduces what he characterizes as three main theories of management development: (1) the jungle theory, (2) the education theory, and (3) the agricultural theory. The jungle theory is based on the premise that, once placed in an agency, a talented individual will naturally distinguish himself simply by outperforming his colleagues. The best way to identify this talent, therefore, is to wait for the natural selection process to operate. This theory has been variously referred to in the literature as the "sink-or-swim" theory, the "up-or-out" theory extant in the uniformed services, or the "cream-will-rise-to-the-top" theory. According to Gellerman, the assumption that a resourceful, industrious, and self-sufficient individual would somehow propel himself to the top in veritable Horatio Alger tradition has been almost universally discredited.

The essence of the education theory, on the other hand, is couched on a recognition of the inadequacies of the jungle theory. This theory, one which is popular in most agencies that have management development programs, maintains that management consists of skills that can be deliberately developed by an educational program.

The third main theory, which is explained by both Gellerman and McGregor, is the agricultural theory. This approach finds its source in the idea "that effective managers are grown not born; and that since most of this growth takes place outside the context of formal training programs, it is important that managers work in a job environment that is as growth-conducive as possible."

The most common problem with these theories, however, is the conspicuous absence of prescriptive devices to develop managers in terms of: target groups, identification and selection processes, content of learning, strategy, timing and locale.

Towards a Synthesis

The numerous efforts at generating general theoretical orientations which could be made applicable to management education have so far achieved minimal success, not to speak of spirited public debates which these competing theories have inspired in the training and development community. Nevertheless, although the prevailing management development activities are well camouflaged by a diversity and at times contradictory set of emphases and philosophies, a careful examination inevitably and consistently reveals certain components or models which may be categorized as:

—cognitive skills
—affective modes
—broadening of perspectives

Cognitive Skills

Under the general rubric of cognitive skills we discover three substantive levels of emphasis: the *conceptual* level, the *analytic* level, and the *motoric* level. As a learning experience, the cognitive skills theory seeks to promote new ways of *doing* things, or to elevate one's competence in directions which would be more cost-effective. These skills may consist of general analytic skills or those which are more specific in character. The set of skills at the conceptual level would include the ability to deal with abstractions. The ability to view the agency as a whole entity involving the parts in functional interrelationships one with the other is important. At the analytic level this group of skills connote an ability to work with various methods, processes and techniques. These skills involve the special knowledge and tools of specific disciplines. While the third level, the one which is motoric in nature—and not one which is directly relevant to management education per se—refers to improved manual dexterity as it involves more routine office procedures.

Affective Modes

Subsumed under the category of affective modes we can distinguish at least three distinctive modes: the *social* mode; the *attitudinal* mode; and the *experiential* mode. As a variant kind of learning experience, the affective mode is designed to contribute new ways of thinking and of *feeling* about things. It seeks to challenge old habits, attitudes and practices, and to raise the level of one's consciousness about the culture of the organization.

The social mode deals with one's ability to engage smoothly in interpersonal relationships with organizational members. The attitudinal mode seeks to prescribe the values and concerns which the individual is expected to uphold relative to the norms of the organization of which he is a part. The experiential mode consists of an overt attempt to label phenomena and develop linkages to related social situations in ways enabling the individual to adopt new and varied modes of responses within the environment of the organization.

Broadening of Perspective

This particular philosophy would contend that it isn't very fruitful to dichotomize divergent kinds of learning experiences, and therefore seeks to reconcile the mutual needs of improving the ways of *doing* things and the new ways of *feeling* about things. Simply put, it would attempt to offer a balanced curriculum while at the same time exercising every effort to avoid luring training participants into the heroic charade of the "how-to" gambit or providing them with a mere experiential placebo. This thrust at broadening one's perspective is, in a sense, a variant form of organizational humanism. It seeks to offer a manager the opportunity to study the functional interrelationships between his organization in the context of its various environments. It is, as Professor Ramos would contend, an effort "to understand what types of contemporary social circumstances are now affecting each individual and in consequence the organizations." This new kind of manager *qua* "parenthetical man" is one who has "a strong sense of self and an urge to find meaning in life."[13]

Thus, unlike the two other component parts of the development process, the broadening of perspective alternative shows less concern with the direct utility of the subject content and more concern with the opportunity for managers to get jarred loose from conventional thinking and from their narrowing job specialties. It further attempts to enlarge upon the manager's competence to expand his set of options for any given problem, as well as to provide him with a more acute sense of decisional consequences.

In recent years, bold manifestations of this kind of commitment to management education in the public service were exemplified with the establishment of the Executive Seminar Centers at Kings Point, New York in 1963; Berkeley, California, in 1966; and a third at Oak Ridge, Tennessee, in the summer of 1971. According to the course agenda of the executive seminar center, the objective of the program is to:

> . . . broaden the conceptual understanding and to enhance the administrative abilities of selected mid-level government executives. It is designed for executives whose attained or potential position and responsibility involve an expansion of their views, attitudes, and understandings beyond agency and functional boundaries.

In addition to these three existing centers, an advanced program was initiated in 1968 at Charlottesville, Virginia. This program at the Federal Executive Institute (FEI), under the directorship of Chester A. Newland, is concerned with promoting the educational needs of career executives within the supergrade structure (GS 16-18 and equivalents). In its concern with executive development, the FEI has mobilized outstanding talent principally from the academic community in order to satisfy the broad educational goals which it established for itself at the time of its inception:

(1) To heighten responsiveness to national needs and goals. . . .
(2) To increase appreciation of the totality of the governmental system. . . .
(3) To improve knowledge of managerial processes. . . .

The Problem of Evaluation

It is frequently said by those interested in management development that since the broadening of perspective formula of the ESC's and the FEI cannot in the short run lend itself to evaluation in exact quantitative terms, the effort may be misguided. It's true that to date no satisfactory method of evaluation has been developed, and therefore, the merits of management development must still rest largely in the intuitively accepted, albeit empirically undemonstrated belief, that a broadening experience will improve the future behaviors of the public service's managerial corps. Actually, the problem for some—especially among the rank of skeptics—is that they seem to manifest an atheoretical enchantment with facts at the sacrifice of educational significance.[18] Given the increasing pressures to keep abreast of the new technologies and the need to respond to socio-economic and administrative-political innovations which are constantly bombarding society, one sees the necessity for managers to escape the web of parochial thinking. They need to profit from the relevance of a mind-stretching type of educational experience in order that they may be able to respond to society's changing needs with a greater sense of vigor, imagination and daring.

Notes

1. FPM Ltr., 412-1, October 8, 1971.
2. James H. Taylor, *Personnel Administration, Evaluation and Executive Control* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1959), p. 43.
3. Robert J. House, *Management Development: Design, Evaluation and Implementation* (Ann Arbor, Michigan: Bureau of Industrial Relations, University of Michigan, 1967).
4. John P. Campbell, Marvin C. Dunnette, Edward E. Lawler III, and Karl E. Weick, Jr., *Managerial Behavior, Performance, and Effectiveness* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1970).
5. Leonard Nadler, *Developing Human Resources* (Houston, Texas: Gulf Publishing Company, 1970).

6. Robert Glaser, "Psychology and Instructional Technology," in R. Glaser, (ed.), *Training Research and Education* (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1965), p. 4.
7. Edgar H. Schein, "Management Development as a Process of Influence," *Industrial Management Review* (May 1961), pp. 59-77. *Schein* of course was directly influenced by Kurt Lewin's *Field Theory in Social Science: Selected Theoretical Papers*, edited by Dorwin Cartwright (New York: Harper and Row Publishers, Torchbook edition, 1964), pp. 228-231.
8. Dallas V. Merrell, *Transchange Theory and Strategies for Management Education: A Study of Change of Dynamics in Selecting Management Education Programs* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Graduate School of the University of Southern California, 1970).
9. Douglas McGregor, *The Human Side of Enterprise* (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1960). See especially in part III: "Management Development Programs."
10. *Ibid.*, p. 191.
11. Saul W. Gellerman, *Management By Motivation* (American Management Association, Incorporated, 1968). See Chapter 6, *passim.*
12. Alberto Guerreiro Ramos, "Models of Man and Administrative Theory," *Public Administration Review* (May/June 1972), pp. 242-244.
13. Lending eloquent support to this argument is: Charles A. Nelson, "Liberal Education for Public Service?" *Public Administration Review* (Autumn 1958), especially pp. 281-283.

STUDY QUESTION

[Admittedly, this article presents a broad summary of the major theories of management development. However, the information provided is sufficient to respond to the following questions. Note the similarities to these theories and the reasons presented earlier in this module for career development programs.]

11. What benefits would accrue to an individual and/or to an organization from each of these management development theories?

    a. McGregor:

    - Manufacture approach

    - Agricultural approach

    b. Gillerman:

    - Jungle Theory

    - Education Theory

    - Agricultural Theory

    c. Synthesis:

    - Cognitive Skills

- Affective Modes

- Broadening of Perspective

E. CAREER DEVELOPMENT CRITICALLY EXAMINED

The next article included in this module takes a less positive position with regard to the promise of career development programs. The author offers a critical analysis of career development programs and questions if we can completely prepare an employee for the future.

- "Career Development: Preparing Round Pegs for Square Holes" by Leonard Ackerman (reprinted with the permission of the publisher of Training and Development Journal, February 1976, pp. 12-14).

Career Development: Preparing Round Pegs For Square Holes

are we programming people for a reality that will not be there?

Leonard Ackerman

Most organizations pride themselves in showing you how they develop their people through a process of selection, training, education and assignments to eventually fill top managerial and professional jobs in their organization. Large staffs administer these programs and much money is spent in training and education. Even more energy is expended by those enrolled in these programs who are trying to fill in the appropriate blocks that will allow them to fill in more blocks that will make them more competitive for further advancement and development.

Whether it is industry, government or university, those at the bottom are always trying to ascertain what tickets are needed to get to the top. Choice assignments, particular education or training or publication in a prestigious journal may be important steps up the ladder of success.

Career development has been almost universally accepted as the epitome of managing an organization's human resources. And yet this writer has some grave misgivings not only about the effectiveness of these programs but in the underlying philosophy and its implications.

"After-the-Fact"

Do we know what skills, knowledge and experiences will need to be developed during the next 10-30 years? I think not. History has shown that technological innovation has far exceeded our ability to control and manage it. We are constantly faced with after-the-fact management. One has only to look at the utilization of computers in contemporary organizations. The majority of our sophisticated computers are currently being used as glorified accounting machines, spewing out payrolls and inventories, hardly ever working on the complex problems they were designed to deal with. And so we run courses for executives designed to give them an understanding and appreciation for computers and what they can do for managers. But it's too late! How can we expect individuals who have gotten where they are, based on a totally different way of doing things, to feel other than distrusting, threatened and inadequate when faced with something they really don't understand.

Where are those who were being developed 20 years ago to meet the challenges of change? They're exactly where they are supposed to be; unfortunately they are not equipped in terms of knowledge and, at an even more basic level, in terms of understanding or appreciation of change implications. They are where they are based on past knowledge, skills and experience. We have taught them techniques that have already outlived their time spans rather than having prepared them to develop new techniques and methods for problems that have yet to be faced brought on by a technology of which we have only a small inkling.

Does this mean that education, training and experience are for naught and that nihilism is the only way to cope? Far from it . . . . What is required is a restructuring of the whole developmental process. Let's still educate and train, both in the classroom and on the job, and give our people the necessary knowledges and skills to handle their current and immediate future jobs, but instead of typecasting them for a role that will be written out of the play, let's prepare them to act in plays that have yet to be written in roles that will have to be interpreted.

An Uncertain Future

What is to be accomplished is fairly obvious. How to do it is the most difficult problem facing organizations today.

It is readily apparent that the only way to prepare for an uncertain future is to develop in those who are to face it the necessary capacities of broad outlook, flexibility, tolerance for ambiguity, ability to analyze and synthesize, and to be able to make decisions under conditions of risk and uncertainty. More of this later.

The primary goal of career development programs is to develop top-level managers and professionals to meet the future needs of the organization. At the same time they are designed to develop the individual careerist to maximum potential. Surely these goals are meritorious. However, are they really being attained?

> "What is to be accomplished is fairly obvious . . . How to do it is the most difficult problem facing organizations today."

Career development programs are designed to do this through a series of planned, programmed and phases educational, training and experiential opportunities. Selection for these opportunities is based on performance in previous activities and "potential" for further development.

In addition the careerist can opt for different types of programs and activities. Programs have historically progressed from the narrow to the general with job content and educational and training activities taking on broader areas as the individual moves up the career ladder. It is this writer's contention that the broadening comes too late and that the molding, either implicit or explicit, in these programs has preordained their failure.

When an individual goes to work for an organization he or she learns what things must be done to succeed in that organization. Assuming that person stays with the organization and accepts the system, he or she will play the career development game since it's the only game in town and he or she is striving to succeed in that organization.

The individual learns which types of assignments are better for his or her career and will try to get them. If an advanced degree is important he or she will try to get to school even if he or she has to do it on personal time and expense. (In fact, in many organizations this carries more credit than if the company sends the person.) Others will try to become proteges of those who appear to be going places in the organization. In other words people play the career development game not because it necessarily leads to professional competence but because it leads to success! Many careerists have played the career game only to find that the organization has changed the rules of the game and what the individual thought was the ideal preparation for success is no longer relevant. This seems to be on the increase as career programs become more structured while the needs of the organization are being constantly modified.

"Scrap Our Programs"

The way out of this dilemma is to scrap our career development programs. Let's limit our education, training and experience assignments to the immediate job or to the next job a person is going to fill. The underlying assumption is that since we cannot predict with any degree of certainty what specific skills and knowledges will be needed in the long term it is self-defeating to try! It results in a net waste of organizational and individual resources.

In order to meet the needs of the future, individuals and organizations must be flexible if they are to remain competitive. Those unable to meet the demands of a constantly changing environment will become obsolete. Planning is a critical part of any organization's process of coping with change. However, overplanning results in inflexibility and trying to make reality fit the plan rather than modifying the plan to meet reality. This writer believes that this is the case with career development. We are programming people for a reality that will not be there.

A similar problem can be seen in many colleges and universities where the program of study is so restricted that the individual is prepared for only a very narrow area, having no appreciation or understanding of other disciplines and their relationships. The problem then is how do we develop what is essentially an orientation toward change? How do we prepare people to meet the challenges of the future? How do we develop tolerance for ambiguity?

Of primary importance is the development of an organizational climate that is open in that it is not bound by the constraints of conventional wisdom but dares to seek new solutions. This climate reinforced by a rewards structure that is not concerned with the tickets one has punched but rather with the ability of the individual to perform well in situations of ambiguity, risk and uncertainty will do more to prepare the individual for the future than any career program currently extant. In this kind of environment, people will make mistakes and, if people are to learn from them, then the organization must have the capacity to accept them.

When the price of failure is so high that people will not chance even the smallest risk, the organization will eventually suffer.

Restrict Training & Education

As for formalized training and education I would restrict this to current job needs and possibly for the next job an individual will fill if that person is programmed to fill it and if the knowledge or skill is necessary to perform the job. This would eliminate training large groups of people for jobs to be filled in the future when only a few will actually be needed.

In place of these career development programs I would substitute an educational program that would have one objective in mind, simply to broaden the background and understanding of the individual. It would focus on teaching the individual to analyze, synthesize and draw conclusions, and to apply these abilities on the job. It would not be geared to any particular level of the organization but would be an ongoing process from the time a junior engineer or management trainee first comes to work for the organization until retirement.

It would not be formal except that the organization might want to run it as an in-house program or to make arrangements with an outside activity to provide the program. It would be strictly voluntary in that it would not be required for advancement. In this scheme the only measures for promotion would be previous performance and potential. Included in the evaluation would be the individual's tolerance for ambiguity, flexibility and ability to operate under conditions of risk and uncertainty. Whether the individual had taken any courses or not would be immaterial — the *true* measure would be performance. Thus, some people might find the educational experience helpful in performing their jobs while others might find it a waste of time. The only value judgment made is that a broad background in a variety of disciplines may be beneficial to some people in meeting future organizational problems.

What is to be studied has no limits. History, philosophy, literatures, the natural and social sciences, etc., are all "grist for the mill." The only limits are that they are not to be graded and they are not to teach how to do it. They are to be experiences in gaining knowledge, understanding and appreciation of the world in which they live.

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STUDY QUESTIONS

12. Why does the author, Leonard Ackerman, feel present career development programs should be scrapped?

13. How would Ackerman restructure training and development programs?

F. OPTIONAL READINGS

The following two readings are optional and are listed with their sources for your further information and interest.

The first of these two readings addresses the issue of training contributions to organizational survival.

As has already been noted, training programs developed as a response to changes in society. Factors such as technological innovations, changes in the market place, and consumer demands, in turn, forced organizational change. This article outlines why and how one employer responded to change with the development of training programs.

The second and concluding reading proposes a rationale for training and development programs. It offers the development of human resources as a serious and real need and argues for greater concern and commitment from top management.

These two readings are:

- "Change Begets Change" by Percy Wood (published in Training and Development Journal, July 1976, pp. 24-26, 55-56).
- "Human Resources - the Last Resources of a frontier Society" by James L. Hayes (published in Training and Development Journal, June 1976, pp. 8-10).

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Glueck, William, Personnel: A Diagnostic Approach, Dallas, Texas: Business Publications Inc., 1974.

Stahl, Glenn, Public Personnel Administration, New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1971.

ASSIGNMENT

The following question should be answered as completely as possible on separate paper. Two copies of your responses should be mailed to the instructor. One copy will be returned to you with the instructor's comments and the other will be retained as part of your course record.

1. *Identify an organization with which you are familiar and then answer either part a or part b of this question.*

    a. *Describe its training program, considering such factors as the goals of the program, the type of program, and the training methods and aids utilized. Comment then on your impression of the effectiveness of the program.*

    or

    b. *Design a training program for that organization utlizing the factors mentioned in part a. Include your justification for the type of training that you have designed.*

STUDY QUESTIONS

Answer Key

1. a. To prepare new employees to fill the specific position within the organization for which they were hired.
   b. To assist employees to change and up-date their knowledge and skills to meet changes within the organization.
   c. To enable employees to fill jobs totally unique to the organization and for which no outside pre-service preparation exists.
   d. To help employees keep abreast of technical changes in their fields.
   e. To avoid always adding new employees in situations where moderate in-service training will allow existing employees to fill new positions.
   f. To show interest in employees which creates enthusiasm and supports morale.
   g. To communicate organizational goals and policies to employees in a less threatening, more receptive atmosphere.
   h. To tie employee skill development to the unique structure and needs of the organization.

2. a. Developing Top Leadership.
   b. Performance Improvement.
   c. Induction and Orientation.
   d. Broadening Staff Usefulness.

3. a. Apprenticeship training: classroom, practical experience, used mostly for skilled trades.
   b. Vestibule training: learning in a simulated work environment.
   c. On-the-job training: training in the real work situation.
   d. Off-the-job training: training is conducted in organizational classrooms or vocational/technical schools.

4. a. Methods: lectures, conferences, programmed instruction.
   b. Aids: slides, movies, tapes, audio visual aids.

5. a. Supervisors have strong influence on the attitudes and behavior of subordinates.
   b. They are responsible for the "breaking-in" of newly hired employees.
   c. They have a personal impact on the growth and development of subordinates.

6. Cost/benefit analyses are very difficult to conduct for training programs. Data on costs are not too difficult to collect, but data on benefits are much harder to obtain with any specificity or assurance of accuracy. If we only compared costs with savings or increased earnings to the organization, costs would undoubtedly be higher and training programs would be cut. But there are other less tangible reasons for training employees--such as improved morale and the felt social and moral responsibilities of employees--that continue to support the use of training programs.

7. Career development refers to the creation of a pattern of jobs through which an employee may progress. Accordingly, career development must deal in long-range plans for the employee. Training, on the other hand, is most concerned with immediate needs of the individual. Its intent is to help the employees to add to their existing goal of knowledge and skill. As this suggests, training programs may become part of the pattern of moving from one job to the next--career development.

8. a. Altruistic purposes or for the good of the employee. This recognizes the importance of employee satisfaction and dignity as reason enough for career development programs.
   b. Self-serving reasons or for the benefit of the employer. This concedes that happy, fulfilled workers who see the opportunities for advancement are good for the organization. They will make a greater contribution to the organization and will be less likely to leave.
   c. Mutual interest or for the benefit of employer and employee. This position essentially represents that the employer needs the employee and the employee needs the employer. Specifically, it argues that career development programs can prevent possible problems (such as hoarding of employees by supervisors) and thus avoid the negative consequences to both the employee and the organization.
   d. External requirements or because there is no choice. This reason simply is a response to the laws or restrictions frequently imposed by the federal and/or state government.

9. a. Identification of career/position goal(s) and direction.
   b. Self-appraisal.
   c. Review of supervisory appraisals.
   d. Identification of educational and experiential (job) steps [plan for a career ladder].
   e. Implementation [arrangements for education, if needed, time on the job, and promotions].
   f. Checks on progress [comparison of actual movement with time plan for advancement toward the goal].

10. Self analysis. You may send your analysis to the instructor for review and comment. (Not for grading)

11. a. Manufacture Approach:

Employee learns those things that the organization has determined will be beneficial to the organization.

Agricultural Approach:

Individual is allowed to grow into what the individual is capable of becoming.

b. Jungle Theory:

Chance rules, and the individual will benefit if he/she is the "strongest" in the "jungle."

Education Theory:

Skills, which may benefit the organization and which would benefit the individual are developed.

Agricultural Theory:

Growth of the individual in general is considered.

c. Cognitive Skills:

Skills which may be of more immediate benefit to the organization are developed.

Affective Modes:

This approach seeks to benefit both the organization and the individual.

Broadening of Perspective:

Individuals would receive the primary benefit.

12. a. We teach techniques that have already outlived their time spans.
    b. We do not know what skills and knowledges will need to be developed during the next 10-30 years.
    c. We are faced with after-the-fact management.
    d. The broadening of programs has come too late.

13. a. Training would be restricted to current and one higher level jobs.
    b. Create educational programs which broaden background and understanding of the individual.
    c. Teach the individual to analyze, synthesize, and draw conclusions and to apply these abilities on the job.
    d. It would not be formal but would be inhouse and voluntary.
    e. No limitations on subject matter to be studied would be set.
    f. All judgments would be based on performance.

PA 848
MANAGEMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCES

MODULE 8:
CLASSIFICATION AND CAREER SYSTEMS

PREPARED
BY:
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UNIVERSITY EXTERNAL STUDIES PROGRAM

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MODULE 8: CLASSIFICATION AND CAREER SYSTEMS

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MODULE 8: CAREER SYSTEMS AND CLASSIFICATION

KEY TERMS AND CONCEPTS

- Position
- Job Analysis
- Job description
- Job specification
- Job classification
- Job evaluation
- Position classification

INTRODUCTION

Postion classification is a critical aspect in any personnel program. It is the means through which career systems and compensation plans are developed. It provides the organization with the details of what needs to be done and what area, unit, and individual position are responsible for its performance. Recruitment and selection, training, and manpower planning programs are structured upon information derived from position classification systems. Information and communication are goals of an effective personnel system, and position classification is a tool which will assist in reaching these goals.

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

When you have completed this Unit, you should be able to:

1. Define each of the Key Terms and Concepts listed at the beginning of this module.
2. Explain the rationale for the use of position classification systems as presented in the readings.
3. Describe briefly each position classification method mentioned in the readings.
4. Identify and compare the various classes of career systems under a merit system as presented in the readings.
5. Summarize the relationship between position classification and compensation plans.
6. Explain how position descriptions may be used as a communication link.
7. State and defend a position (pro or con) regarding the use of position classification by organizations and personnel specialists.
8. Describe and analyze your organization's position classification system using the concepts presented in this module.

OVERVIEW

Objectives	Tasks	Resources	Evaluation
1. Define each of the key terms listed at the beginning of this module.	Study Questions 1, 5, and 9	Module Readings: A, B	Self
2. Explain the rationale for the use of position classification systems as presented in the readings.	Study Questions 2, 3, and 4	Module Reading: A	Self
3. Describe briefly each position classification method mentioned in the readings.	Study Question 6	Module Reading: C	Self
4. Identify and compare the various classes of career systems under a merit system as presented in the readings.	Study Question 8	Module Reading: E	Self
5. Summarize the relationship between position classification and compensation plans.	Study Questions 9, 10, and 11	Module Reading: F	Self

Objectives	Tasks	Resources	Evaluation
6. Explain how position descriptions may be used as a communication link.	Study Questions 12 and 13	Module Reading: G	Self
7. State and defend a position (pro or con) regarding classification by organizations and personnel specialists.	Study Question 7; Module Assignment 1	Module Reading: D Module Readings and Your Experience	Self Instructor Feedback
8. Describe and analyze your organizations position classification system using the concepts presented in this module.	Module Assignment 2	Module Readings and Your Experience	Instructor Feedback

A. RATIONALE FOR POSITION CLASSIFICATION

Position classification (sometimes called job evaluation) is a systematic and orderly process of determining the worth of a job (the correct rate of pay) in relation to other jobs. It is considered one of the major factors in providing efficient personnel and budgetary administration. (Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada, 1941, p. 55) The process "serves as the basis for salary equalization and standardization." (Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada, 1941, p. 37). It allows for:

1. Pulling the myriad of detail into understandable fashion;
2. Treating positions alike and as groups;
3. Emphasizing an impartial approach to avoid favoritism in regard to work and pay problems. (Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada, 1941, p. 2)

The words "position" or "job" do not refer to the employee in any manner. A position is the conglomeration of duties or tasks and responsibilities which would exist even if no one currently fills the position. Therefore, the concept that a position or job is something totally distinct from an employee is a basic tenet of the system.

Throughout the literature on personnel administration, many rationales for the existence of position classification or job evaluation systems can be found. However, all appear to relate to efficiency even though they may be found under the subheadings of productivity or fiscal responsibility.

Position classification systems are thought to promote fiscal responsibility by providing for the following:

1. Cost control;
2. Equal pay for equal work;
3. Simplification of budget preparation;
4. Competitive equality -- the ability to recruit new staff;
5. Forecasting personnel requirements;
6. Providing personnel statistics. (Hansen, 1968, p. 17)

Position classification systems are also thought to influence productivity by allowing for the following:

1. Establishing a basis for organizational human resource analysis and planning;
2. Establishing a basis for improving employee performance through the mechanism of performance evaluations;
3. Establishing a structured and defensible basis for personnel decisions;
4. Establishing a uniform terminology;
5. Improving employee morale by providing career ladders;
6. Determining individual work objectives;
7. Assisting supervisory and departmental management. (Hansen, 1968, p.18)

A position classification or job evaluation system is a management device which exists to maintain organizational goals. It is a tool to be used by those responsible for organizational control and coordination.

STUDY QUESTIONS

1. Define the following terms: position and position classification.

2. A) Summarize the rationale for position classification.

   B) Explain how position classification is used as a management tool.

3. Describe the clarifying role of position classification.

4. Summarize the principal uses and advantages of position classification.

B. BRIEF HISTORY OF POSITION CLASSIFICATION

1. Private Industry

Evaluation of positions in United States private industry was an outgrowth of Fredrick Taylor's process of studying and collecting information relating to a specific job for the purpose of establishing scientific management techniques -- a process called job analysis. (Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada, 1941, p. 27). This process of the industrial engineer was soon followed by the personnel specialist.

During World War I increased emphasis was placed upon job specifications -- the statement of the minimum acceptable human qualities necessary to perform a job -- and the standardization of job terminology to allow for more efficient placement of personnel. The Index of Occupations and a Manual of Trade Specifications were developed. In 1918 the War Labor Policies Board requested a standardization of wages based upon classification.

The use of job classification -- or the grouping of jobs in some special basis -- grew rapidly after 1918. Its original function, assisting in the recruitment process, expanded to developing promotion plans, furnishing personnel data, and assisting in wage and salary administration. Job evaluation techniques were originally established to cover blue-collar positions but by the 1940's was also being used for the analysis of white-collar occupations.

2. Federal Government

The question of fixing wage rates for Federal employees appears in various appropriations acts throughout the period from 1789 to 1850. In 1853-54 Congress enacted the first classification legislation which covered the clerical employees of the Departments of Treasury, War, Navy, Interior, and Post Office. This plan established four classes with one salary rate for each class.

From 1854 to 1923 additional studies by various committees and commissions were conducted but no action was taken until the passage of the Classification Act of 1923. The Act established centralized control through the Personnel Classification Board over the allotment of positions and the fixing of wage rates. In 1932 the Personnel Classification Board was abolished and its functions were transferred to the Civil Service Commission.

3. State and Local Governments

Prior to 1908 the principles of position classification had been recognized but not applied by any state or local jurisdictions. The Civil Service Commission of the City of Chicago was the first to undertake a major job evaluation study (1905) and eventually implement a classification plan. The commission's method of bringing together similar positions to create similar groups originated the theory of "classes" of positions.

The Chicago Commission's philosophy of standardization of positions and salaries is still a major factor in modern job evaluation systems. The period of 1915 to 1935 saw job evaluation systems adopted by many state and local governments.

STUDY QUESTIONS

5. Define the following terms: job analysis, position or job specification, job classification.

C. POSITION CLASSIFICATION METHODS

1. The Job Ranking Method

The earliest and most simplistic of the job classification systems which groups jobs on the basis of specified criteria is the Job Ranking Method. It calls for a comparison on the basis of the whole position and a ranking in order of its relative difficulty or value to the institution. (Brennan, 1963, p. 108) Factors such as education, experience, and difficulty of work are the criteria for evaluation. Positions are initially ranked at the departmental level by individuals (foremen, industrial engineers) who are considered as unbiased as possible. Whole positions are then ranked in hierarchical order and pay scales which reflect the differences in ranking are established.

2. The Job Classification Method

In this method the analyst breaks down and analyzes the specific tasks performed in each position. It recognizes that there are "differences in the levels of duties, responsibilities, and skills required for the performance of different jobs." (Patterson, 1972, p. 41) This method demands a careful distinction between levels of work (clerical, technical, supervisory, professional, maintenance, service) and an analysis of specific tasks within levels on the basis of complexity and degree of difficulty.

A determination of the complexity of a given task may be made on the basis of the following criteria:

1. Status of work or stage of development of a problem when received and released;
2. Type of procedure followed and process involved;
3. Variety and scope of work;
4. Responsibility for supervision;
5. The job contacts involved.

An analysis of the degree of difficulty of a task could include the following:

1. Length of experience necessary to obtain efficient performance;
2. Amount of training, formal or informal, required;
3. The possibility and/or results of error;
4. The exercise of independent judgement.

Once the analysis is performed, jobs are then assigned to grades or levels with their accompanying pay structures.

3. The Point Analysis Method

The point method was devised by Lott in 1924 and is considered the first quantitative classification method to have been devised. It is the most widely used method in the United States. (Patterson, 1972, p. 62)

This method displays some similarities to the job classification method in that job factors are identified and positions are broken down to and evaluated on the basis of these factors. However, it strives to assign point values to job factors, total the point values of each position's factors, and then classify the job in ranges of total points. An assumption is made that the same factors will be found in all jobs, and no credit or points are given to uncommon but present factors. This method also assumes that the job is an aggregate of tasks and responsibilities which require the service of only one individual.

Six steps or stages constitute the procedural basis of this system. Stage one involves the selection of factors common to all jobs in the company. In certain instances where this cannot be accomplished, factors which relate to a cluster of jobs are identified. Key jobs are then selected and the "data obtained from the key jobs will be used for rating every job in the firm; they are the benchmarks on which the accuracy of the whole plan will be based." (Patterson, 1972, pp. 62-63)

The second stage calls for the selection of the factors which will be used in the analysis. Four major factors with ten to fifty subdivisions may be utilized.

Example:	SKILL	Education Experience Initiative and Ingenuity
	EFFORT	Physical Mental and visual demands
	RESPONSIBILITY FOR	Equipment or process Material or product Safety of others Work of others
	JOB CONDITIONS	Working conditions Unavoidable hazards

(Patterson, 1972, p. 64)

Stages three and four are concerned with assigning points to the identified factors. Three assigns a percentage weighting to each factor present in the whole job. Dividing each factor weighting into parts for point allocation is the task found in stage four. As an example, a managerial position may be analyzed using the following job factors:

Point Evaluation Standard	Number of Point Levels	Maximum Points
Education	6	120
Experience	8	200
Complexity of duties	5	100
Monetary responsibility	5	60
Contacts	5	60
Working conditions	5	25

(Patterson, 1972, p. 73)

The creation of the Job Evaluation Manual and the pay structure are the fifth and sixth stages. The pay structure is derived by:

1. converting the sum of points to a dollar value;
2. placing jobs of similar value into similar grades;
3. allowing for a smooth progression;
4. allowing for company dollars and the labor market.

4. The Factor Comparison System

This system is similar to the Point method in that it is based upon a comparison of factors. However, a major difference exists in that a dollar value rather than a point value is assigned directly to the factor. The method may utilize four to seven factors. The five most widely used are mental requirements, skill requirements, physical requirements, responsibility, and working conditions. (Patterson, 1972, p. 82)

Key jobs with undisputed pay scales are selected for analysis. Commonalities are identified and the monthly salary is broken down to a percentage relating to each job factor. All other jobs are then compared to the key jobs and placed in rank order. A scale of factor/dollar value is then prepared.

This method utilizes a ranking committee. The individual members rank each job in a series based on factor difficulty. Total committee agreement must be reached through either discussion, elimination of the key job causing disagreement, or removal of the disagreeing committee member.

5. The Castellion Method

The kinds of decisions made in or required from the position are the basis of this classification method. The underlying assumption is that decision-making is the most important component of any position. The factors considered in the analysis of decision-making are "the kind of decision itself, how often it is exercised (pressure of work), the kinds of computations involved, and the comprehension required, vigilance exercised, the consequence of errors, experience, and controls exercised (equivalent to time-span)." (Patterson, 1972, p. 86)

The type of decision is the major factor and the decision-making scale consists of the following:

Type of Decision	Points	Band
1. Simple decisions involving straight-forward comparisons	1-4	0
2. Simple decisions requiring little know-how	5-8	
3. Simple decisions based upon categorized data	9-12	
4. Decisions requiring broad estimates	13-16	
5. Simple and varied decisions	17-25	A
6. Decisions requiring coordination of data	26-34	
7. Decisions which follow from a reasoned estimate	35-43	
8. Decisions requiring practical know-how	44-52	B
9. Decisions involving systematic searches	53-61	

		Points	Band
10.	Decisions involving the interplay of variables	62-78	C
11.	Complex decisions involving the some measure of self-reliance	80-96	
12.	Complex decisions based upon incomplete information	98-114	
13.	Decisions formulated following broad organizational objectives	116-148	D
14.	Top-level decisions	152-200	E

Groups of these decisions are assigned to decision bands and points, indicating the value of the levels. Each position is evaluated in terms of the types of decisions made. The positions are then ranked in order of importance with all positions requiring the same kind of decision-making grouped to form classes.

6. The Time-Span Method

The time-span method is a product of Professor Elliot Jacques who developed this classification system in his book Measurement of Responsibility. The philosophical underpinning of his method is the acceptance of work as a social contract which involves the undertaking of an obligation with the expectation of a reward. He defines work as "the application of knowledge and the exercise of discretion within the limits prescribed by the immediate manager and by higher policies, in order to carry out the activities allocated by the immediate manager, the whole carried out within an employment contract for a wage or salary." (Jacques, 1961, p. 71) In other words, the worker is responsible for his or her function and exercises some discretion in decision-making. Therefore, the whole of his or her activities and the accompanying assignment of status and payment will be evaluated in terms of decision-making.

The identification of level of work will be determined through an analysis of the span of time over which the subordinate performs the task so that the manager can be assured of the absence of marginally substandard decision-making.

Tasks may be single or multiple and the time span can range from a period as short as five minutes to a period as long as several months. The time spans or targets are set by the supervisor and the procedural decisions established by the subordinate.

Time-span will correlate with the level of abstraction that is required for performing the various tasks. The levels of abstraction are ranked in ascending order of importance and are as follows:

Rank 1	PERCEPTUAL-CONCRETE This relates to work which is physically present and regularly checked by a supervisor.
Rank 2	IMAGINAL-CONCRETE This level does not require the physical object be present but only that it be kept in mind. It would normally involve the managing of work found in Rank 1.
Rank 3	CONCEPTUAL-CONCRETE This level requires dealing with the future. It concerns planning the tasks of Ranks 1 and 2.
Rank 4	ABSTRACT-MODELLING This level requires abandoning the reliance on the perceptual while allowing for the abstraction to be eventually converted to the concrete. Development and sales functions would fall into this category.
Rank 5	THEORY CONSTRUCTION Individuals at this level will control Rank 4 managers and are concerned with profit and loss accountability.
Ranks 6 and 7	ADVANCED THEORY CONSTRUCTION These ranks are populated by Rank 5 individuals who are handling problems with additional variables but in the same manner. (Patterson, 1972, p. 106)

7. The Guide-Chart Profile Method

This method, a variation of the Point Method, is used primarily with managerial and professional jobs. According to its founder, E.N. Hay, "The system is concerned essentially with analyzing and measuring the importance of jobs relative to one another, and the relative importance of jobs is determined primarily by the purpose of the company or institution within which they operate, i.e., structure is a function of purpose, and Guide Charts are built to represent the structure of the institution in which jobs are being measured." (Patterson, 1972, p. 108)

Hay defines a job as a role and "is concerned with providing a common language to describe the relationships which exist between different roles in any organization." (Patterson, 1972, p. 109) This common language is considered necessary to enable the achievement of consensus when determining the value of the role or job to the institution.

Know-how, problem-solving, and accountability are the factors which are utilized to determine the value of roles. Points are allocated to these factors on the basis of a geometric progression, and the point-span will vary among institutions.

8. The Functional Method

This approach analyzes tasks by assigning them to functions and then to the levels at which they are performed.

EXAMPLE: Typing and Shorthand Function -- performs typing duties using the touch system, and/or takes and transcribes dictation.

Level I	Level II
Under close supervision	Under limited supervision
Factor Considerations	Factor Considerations
Perform simple and repetitive duties in accordance with specific oral and/or written instructions	With defined procedures and precedents to serve as guides, but with independent judgement, perform duties of average difficulty
Examples of Duties	Examples of Duties
1. Post records and complete forms on the typewriter	1. Transcribe machine dictation in final form
2. Cut stencils from models in accordance with explicit instructions	2. Type correspondence, speeches, manuscripts from complicated rough draft to final form without being subject to detailed review.

Positions Assigned to Level I	Positions Assigned to Level II
Clerk I	Clerk II
Typing Clerk I	Typing Clerk II
Clerk Typist I	Clerk Typist II
Clerk Stenographer I	Clerk Stenographer II (Hansen, 1968, p. 229)

A critical step in this system is the recording of "the approximate percentage of time devoted to the performance of each task." (Patterson, 1972, p. 101)

When tasks and percentages of time are splintered and scattered across levels or are found between levels, a judgment is made based upon the overall functioning of the position.

Classification information is obtained through interviews with incumbent and/or supervisors and questionnaires.

STUDY QUESTION

6. List the basis of each position classification method.
   - A) The Job Ranking Method:
   - B) The Job Classification Method:
   - C) The Point Analysis Method:
   - D) The Factor Comparison System:
   - E) The Castellion Method:
   - F) The Time-Span Method:
   - G) The Guide-Chart Profile Method:
   - H) The Functional Method:

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D. ANALYSIS OF POSITION CLASSIFICATION

The development of position classification systems was an attempt by personnel specialists/analysts to apply scientific management to the personnel function. Their efforts to quantify human resources were spurred by Frederick Taylor's work in time and motion studies. The emphasis upon establishing classification structures to assist in the evaluation of extensive data through the creation of similar groupings (families) appears to have been borrowed directly from the biological sciences.

Many of the methods attempt to be quantitative by implementing various impartial numerical value systems. These mechanisms are thought to assist in achieving objectivity by substituting for the unreliable, subjective human factor.

A brief review of the eight job evaluation methods previously discussed will illustrate their lack of total objectivity and scientific impartiality.

1. The Job Ranking method depends upon the subjective judgment of analysts or a committee for the final evaluation of all positions. It presupposes that such individuals will be knowledgeable of all positions within the firm--usually an impossible task.

2. The Job Classification method attempts to be more scientific by calling for an analysis of the complexity and degree of difficulty of tasks. However, the criteria for such an analysis may be anything the analysts wish to establish, and the analysis is still based upon subjective judgment. Additionally, the method's requirement for the development of job families fails to recognize the existence of one-of-a-kind jobs.

3. The Point Analysis method is considered to be truly quantitative, scientific, and objective by many personnel analysts. Apparently the act of assigning numbers to a system assures its scientific nature. However, it should also be recognized that the point values are established through subjective negotiation and, therefore, should not be called totally objective.

4. The Factor Commission method is structurally similar to the Point Analysis method and fails to be scientific in the assignment of factor/dollar value for the same reasons. However, other weaknesses are also apparent. The system relies upon the identification of key jobs. These may be difficult to find and, during comparison, ignores those factors absent in key jobs but present in others. It fails to consider all of the variables. Moreover, it is subjective in that committee evaluation is not necessarily

reached through agreement. If the evaluation of a job proves difficult, the troublesome job or committee member may be thrown out.

5. The Castellion method is based upon decision-making. Such a system based on one variable will shortchange those positions which are highly technical and complex in nature and demand extensive education and skills but call for little or low-level decision-making. The definitions of decision-making levels are subjective and the point ranges have been arbitrarily fixed. The coefficients used to multiply the decision-making scores are also arbitrary.

6. The Time-span method also purports to be scientific but appears instead to be highly subjective. The definitions utilized for analysis are broad and subjective, i.e., they use such limited degrees. The method relies heavily upon the judgement of the position's supervisor, who may have never performed the work, to establish the time span. The supervisor may give different time-spans on various occasions or use "successive approximations." (Patterson, 1972, p. 101)

7. Again, in the Guide-Chart Profile method we find a system where the definitions which are the basis for analysis are not clear and are overlapping. The differences between levels are states as "relative" and not absolute, yet, the ranking of these "relative" differences must be plugged into a quantitative matrix.

8. The determination of levels of performance required in the Functional approach is also based upon the subjective judgement of the analyst. This system admits that in terms of overlapping or splintered duties individual subjective decisions are necessary. Also, the incumbent's determination of percentage of time on task performance will be less than totally accurate.

Job evaluation systems are mechanistic, traditional, and hierarchical As stated earlier, job evaluation systems are a management tool to be utilized in the maintenance of organizational goals. They act as a device for controlling and coordinating the organizational system.

Job evaluation systems offer a formalized, inflexible, hierarchical ordering of positions. This hierarchical structure supports the traditional management principles of chain of command and authority flowing downward from the top. These methods formalize and operationalize Weber's fixed jurisdictional areas.

The emphasis placed upon the creation of "families" of jobs also strengthens the mechanistic model. Families structure status groups (i.e., blue-collar, white-collar, skilled, unskilled, research) within the broader hierarchy to which positions are assigned and with which persons identify.

The present job evaluation methods also operate to support the mechanistic approach through requiring a separation of parts or functions. Taylor's influence is apparent; parts are analyzed while the whole is assumed to take care of itself. Additionally, those job evaluation systems which offer as their base an analysis of decision-making recognize only a single decision process.

Impersonality appears to be a major concern of all classification methods. Duties and tasks, not persons, form the basis for all analysis: the human factor must be ignored, only tasks are relevant. Therefore, tasks are structured to ensure that men will know how to act. These systems strive to be value-free and glorify impersonality.

Job evaluation systems and their establishment of differential rewards serve as the means by which the desired end product, productivity, is thought to be achieved. These methods attempt to assist management in reaching total efficiency through analyzing and evaluating tasks with the aim of minimizing costs and maximizing benefits. They establish the compensation plans which are utilized by supervisors as incentives for increased productivity.

To summarize, job evaluation systems operate to support mechanistic organizations through the following:

1. developing a formal, hierarchical job structure;
2. establishing a differential reward structure;
3. viewing individuals as non-persons;
4. attempting to be value-free and scientific;
5. supporting authority and the superior-subordinate relationship;
6. performing analysis on the basis of parts rather than the whole;
7. concerning itself with productivity and efficiency;
8. creating an inflexible system supportive of the status quo.

It should be noted, furthermore, that job evaluation is not: scientific, precise, mathematical, objective, or accurate within a significant percentage. It may, however, be said that job evaluation is: an attempt to be systematic, analytical, unbiased, and fair. (Hansen, 1968, p. 18)

Although it must be recognized that position classification is not one-hundred percent accurate and, as any system, it has its limitations, it will provide many benefits to an organization. An effective organization needs to know what is being done and by whom. Position classification offers a structure through which this information can be obtained, formalized, and constantly updated.

Job descriptions, a tool of classification, can promote communication between superiors and subordinates. Job descriptions provide a general structuring of tasks which facilitates employee morale and productivity because each employee knows what he or she is expected to accomplish. Job descriptions also provide supervisors with a tool which provides information for training and development and more effective utilization of staff.

Position classification, finally, provides a structure through which job enrichment programs can flow. The requirement of equal pay for equal work can be more effectively monitored and met when supported by position classification systems.

The personnel specialist's job does not cease with the creation and implementation of a classification system. Continued maintenance is critical to ensure the integrity of the systems. When ignored, job descriptions can become rapidly outdated. This can lead to problems in wage and salary administration and recruitment and promotion, and it can also adversly affect employee morale.

System maintenance can be accomplished in two ways. First, major system audits can be done on a yearly basis. Normally, a quarter of the jobs will be reviewed each year. If this is conducted on an ongoing basis, all jobs will be assured of a periodical review. Second, spot checking systems can be created. These may be anything from a mandated audit of any vacant position prior to the initiation of the recruitment effort to spot checks on classifications with high turnover rates or to audits performed at the request of supervisors and/or employees.

STUDY QUESTIONS

7. Summarize the advantages and disadvantages of the position classification systems.

E. GOVERNMENTAL CAREER SYSTEMS

Position classification systems are the basis upon which career systems may be developed. The formalization of duties and responsibilities and the assignment of tasks to job structures provide the mechanism by which career ladders may be constructed. A career system is one which allows an individual to develop his/her career over an extended period of time to the benefit of self and the employer. Federal, state, and local government have historically attempted to foster the career concept in conjunction with the development of personnel systems. Public and private employers alike have perceived the benefit of long term employees.

Career systems can be classified according to their scope, limitations upon entrance, or their orientation for reward and rank. (Stahl, 1971, p. 47)

1. *Program and Organization Careers:*

A career system may be based upon the premise that the employees will stay in a specified program. Or career systems may be structured to permit movement throughout an organization. It is necessary that certain conditions be present to allow for organizational movement. First, a job classification system with an accompanying pay structure is important. Second, a working transfer system is also needed. The limitations to organization careers are: (1) the scope of the individual occupation; (2) limitations on lateral entry above junior levels; (3) the lack of reciprocal exchange of retirement benefit eligibility; and (4) disparity in salary scales. (Stahl, 1971, p. 49)

2. *Open and Closed Career:*

Some closed systems are structured to require entry at the bottom and selection out with upward movement. Selection out begins when the individual achieves an intermediate rank and is then required to meet certain standards or be retired from the service. Other closed systems may not force the individual out. But such employees soon realize their career is stationary and it may be to their best interests to pursue their career elsewhere.

The open system will allow entrance at any grade level. Competive qualification requirements govern entry. Open systems are more flexible. may permit more opportunity for advancement, and recognize today's current employee mobility.

3. *Rank-in-Corps and Job-Oriented Careers:*

The thrust of job oriented careers is the job which is being performed. Career movement is unplanned and relates directly to the advance or decline of the profession. Job oriented careers cut across all organizational lines. It is structured on the basis of a strong classification system and operates with specialization of labor. It clarifies lines of responsibility and assists in avoiding duty and function conflict and overlap.

Rank-in-corps focuses on the individuals and the corps (or groups, department, agency, etc.) to which they belong. Rank is related to length of service, relationship to others in the same group, and general demonstrated aptitudes. (Stahl, 1971, p. 51) This type of system assists in the development of "esprit de corps," is associated with positions that require a high degree of mobility, and possesses financial flexibility. Tenure is service-wide rather than resting in each position. The major limitations of the system are: (a) membership in the group (corps) supercedes qualifications; (b) attitudes develop that promotion is a right; (c) the group becomes inbred; and (d) imbalances in specializations may occur.

4. *Managerial Careers:*

The higher levels of the civil service have traditionally been filled through the development of rank-in-corps systems modeled after the British administrative class. This practice caused the creation of an elite group within the civil service. This situation alarmed some students of government and was recognized by the second Hoover Commission in 1955 as not being in the best democratic tradition and as not necessarily assuring and maintaining the expertise required for such positions. The Commission then recommended a program which would create an open and flexible situation by giving (1) political department heads more latitude in assigning and utilizing higher civil servants and (2) preserve a strong career tradition for this group, thus more tightly insulating the career service from the temptation of political tampering. (Stahl, 1971, pp. 57-58)

The recommendations called for the development of horizontal mobility to allow for the acquisition and utilization of a broad range of expertise. Promotion into the upper ranks would be open to all qualified individuals regardless of brand of education or initial mode of entry to the civil service.

The Commission's recomendations were never legislated into existence, but a few were incorporated into the Executive Assignment System created by the U.S. Civil Service Commission. The Executive Assignment System separates out the noncareer General Schedule (GS) level positions (GS 16, 17, 18). These positions are considered noncareer because they are appointed by the political leadership. The system requires that a centralized perpetual inventory containing the backgrounds of the incumbents of all three top grades (plus grade 15) be created. The inventory is to be consulted whenever an appointment at this level is to be made. The system provides a broad base for internal executive search. The system also utilizes training programs and competitive compensation systems to assist in creating a diversified and competent higher civil service.

Some problems still exist. The program is still not at this time truly federal wide; individual groups or specializations still exist. Also, central planning for meeting executive needs is still lacking.

It may be said, however, that the Executive Assignment System is a working and generally effective combination of some of the advantages of position classification and rank-in-corps.

STUDY QUESTION

8. List the characteristic features of each of the following career systems.

   A. Program Careers:

   B. Job-Oriented Careers:

   C. Rank-In-Corps Careers:

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MONEY IS A STUPID MEASURE OF ACHIEVEMENT, BUT UNFORTUNATELY IT IS THE ONLY UNIVERSAL MEASURE WE HAVE -- CHAS. STEINMETZ

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F. COMPENSATION PLANS

Position classification systems are a means by which compensation plans are developed by providing job descriptions or organized, factual statements of the duties and responsibilities of a job. "Job descriptions and specifications of human requirements are evaluated in terms of worth, with the ultimate objective of determining dollar value." (Flippo, 1961, p. 112) Or, as stated by Glueck, "Job evaluation is the formal process by which the relative worth of various jobs in the organization is determined for pay purposes. Essentially it attempts to relate the amount of the employee's pay to the size of his job's contribution to organizational effectiveness." (Glueck, 1974, p. 408) In other words, job evaluation is concerned with determining differential rewards through a hierarchical structuring of jobs.

Compensation plans establish the structure through which financial remuneration for labor is allocated. "Payment is the practical and concrete means of expressing the evaluation and recognition of the relative value of a man's work -- and in precise quantitative terms." (Jacques, 1961, p. 153)

The first consideration for management when developing a compensation system should be the establishment of an overall salary line. The second phase would involve the creation of the specific salary grades.

In establishing their compensation philosophy management should consider the following:

1. The ability of the institution to pay for the necessary human resources;
2. The competitive factor of the labor market;
3. The worth of the total compensation package;
4. The total personnel program, i.e., career incentives and promotional lines;
5. The type of firm and employment offered, i.e., hazardous or unusual working conditions. (Hansen, 1968, p. 24)

The factors to be considered when developing specific salary grades are:

1. "Logical groupings of positions of like duties and responsibilities
2. Proper pay differentials between supervisors and subordinates
3. Provisions for normal advancement through promotion
4. Provisions for retention of experienced personnel
5. Inclusion of any special institutional policies, such as a practice of awarding longevity increases
6. Easy maintenance of the plan." (Hansen, 1968, p. 25)

Additionally, there are certain elements of a compensation plan which must be kept in mind if one wishes to create an effective and efficient compensation plan. First, a title indicating the job function and level of work performed should be established. Second, job families composed of similar titles are created. It is assumed that individuals occupying positions in such faimilies are interchangeable, e.g., Laborer to Gardner. Assigning salary grades to the families is the third element. Fourth, salary ranges with fixed minima and maxima are assigned to the jobs.

In addition to serving as the basis for financial remuneration, compensation plans are also said to assist in maintaining wage consistency and improving recruitment and retention of staff.

Concerns for wage consistency may be both internal and external. Internal consistency or equity refers to the wage differentials within the firm in terms of grades and ranges. The Equal Pay Act appeared as the federal government's concern for internal equity but again only in terms of the placement of equal work within the same pay scales. It is still believed that "those doing harder or more responsible work should receive more; and those doing easier or less exacting work should receive less." (Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada, 1941, p. 61)

External consistency expresses a desire for competitive equality. This is to be accomplished, however, at the best possible price to the firm.

Compensation plans are considered necessary in recruiting and retaining employees because financial remuneration is felt to be an important factor in attracting and rewarding qualified staff.

STUDY QUESTIONS

9. Define Job Description.

10. What is the relationship between position classification and compensation plans.

11. What factors should be considered by management when establishing their compensation philosophy?

G. CLASSIFICATION AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMUNICATION

The following reading describes how the written job or position description can help supply some basic information, needed by both the organization and the employees. Provision of this information, furthermore, can aid communications, especially in growing organizations. After reading this article, answer the questions at the end of it.

- "The Position Description as a Communications Link" by Michael H. Mescon and Donald O. Jewell (reprinted with permission of the publisher of Atlanta Economic Review, January-February 1975, pp. 31-33).

Michael H. Mescon and Donald O. Jewell

The Position Description as a Communications Link

AS YOU ARE undoubtedly all too well aware, most organizations today, particularly industrial and manufacturing organizations, are plagued by an awesome spectrum of human resource problems. What we read and what we see occurring in organizations indicates that there is an increase in problems such as turnover, absenteeism, quality, and productivity, to cite just a few of the more readily apparent areas of concern. Further, there is slight doubt that many of these problems are related to the manner in which we attempt to utilize human resources in our organizations. Clearly, as a result of changes in affluence, education, and employment patterns, people and the systems within which they function are different than they were 20 years ago in terms of perspective. Most importantly, perhaps, there is a difference in terms of what people want from work.

Organizational responses to human resource changes and the concomitant organizational concerns are currently running the gamut from attempts to totally automate, and thereby "eliminate" the human resource, to the development of confident, well-trained, autonomous work groups with highly enriched jobs that are, in effect, self-managed. Again, there is no question that out of the current experimentation with organizational structure and man's relationship to his work we will evolve an approach to determining what product market, industry, personal, and organizational variables interact to determine the most efficient method for utilizing human resources in varying work environments.

Many of the types of organizational changes that will be necessary in the months and years to come will require major realignments in work content philosophy, job design, management's role, as well as in the nature of compensation.

There is, however, one vehicle of change with respect to the use of human resources that is immediately available and that can generate rather dramatic improvements in productive performance and related work behavior. This "miracle" producer is communication. Not just communication in general, but specific job- and performance-related communication between superior and subordinate.

Any individual in any organization needs at least three kinds of information:

1. Information that lets him know exactly what is expected of him in terms of performance and behavior.
2. Information that lets him know what he can expect from his superior and from the organization relative to their impact on his work and his relationship to them.
3. Information which lets him know how his performance and his behavior are perceived by his superior.

In addition, each employee also needs the opportunity to give at least three kinds of information to his superior:

1. Information with respect to the way in which the individual views his job performance.
2. Feedback to his superior relative to the extent his superior facilitates or inhibits his work performance.
3. Inputs concerning the ways he feels he can improve his performance, or ways in which the job, the structure, or its location can change and thus yield performance improvement.

This kind of two-way sharing of information between subordinate and superior should take place on a regular basis within any organization. Yet this type of interchange between superior and subordinate is rare. In fact, we feel that we can state, with little fear of contradiction, that many people in most organizations do not truly understand what is expected of them; do not really know how well they are doing; do not comprehend where they stand; and are generally frustrated by their inability to communicate these concerns and anxieties to their superiors.

Open, honest, job-related, meaningful information sharing between superior and subordinate is possible. However, it does require a vehicle and a format through which and within which the information exchange can take place.

We have found that the single most effective medium through which meaningful superior-subordinate communication takes place is the dynamic behavioral job description. This is not a job description written solely by salary administrators for job evaluation and

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Exhibit 1: An Abbreviated Behavioral Job Description

Objectives: 4-month interval
Increase market share by 3%
Retain 95% of current accounts
Obtain 8 new accounts
Keep inventory obsolescence below 4%
Maintain average discount at 6.5%

Process: Know who in the client organization makes or affects sales decisions
Know the client's industry
Understand client profit strategies
Know current products completely
Set appropriate call priorities
Obtain accurate sales intelligence
Know how to ask for an order at the appropriate time
Service accounts effectively

job pricing purposes. Rather, it is a behavioral description of an individual's actual functions written by the person himself and his superior. This description is clearly understood, specific, and agreed on by both subordinate and superior. In addition, in simpler terms, it spells out in detail what the results of the job should be (objectives) and the way in which the job should be done (process). For example, Exhibit 1 presents a few items from a behavioral job description of an industrial sales representative (the complete description contains 62 items).

The behavioral description of a job may require as few as 30 items or as many as 200 depending on the complexity of the job. Without this type of purposeful, conscious, agreed on role formation, employee behavior becomes more absolutely random than creatively spontaneous. Much intraorganizational and superior-subordinate conflict is the result of implied global expectations where the performance ball is constantly dropped, due not to ineptness, but to management's failure to establish and communicate behavior expectations clearly. (See Exhibit 2.)

In the absence of firm expectations and the resulting inability to evaluate performance, fault-finding and blame-placing become major preoccupations for staff and managers alike. The organization can become rent by continual sectionalism or develop an ethos within which one functional group or individual tends to build its security and status in the organization on someone else's ruins. In a situation where people don't really know what is expected of them or how to measure their own value and worth to the organization, their survival strategy must be to compete successfully with others, regardless of outcome or effect on either the individual or the organization. At best, this is a highly destructive operational pattern.

Some 15 years ago, one organization with which we are familiar conducted an organizational audit which indicated that there was great concern about job security. Further analysis indicated that job security was a matter of understanding the following:

a. What am I supposed to do?
b. How am I supposed to do it?
c. To whom am I supposed to report?

Today, in organizations, this type of job security or perhaps insecurity is still placed high in stated problem groupings and continues to result in activities that detract from organizational effectiveness. Perhaps the prime cause of superior-subordinate frustration is the failure on the part of each to state clearly and thus, jointly perceive, what is expected in terms of valid expectations, and, here, special emphasis must be placed on valid. In all too many instances the superior makes the uncritical assumption that the subordinate knows what is expected of him. As we have stated earlier, very rarely is this the case. Further, without a well-defined set of work expectations, meaningful performance standards and, therefore, meaningful feedback are impossible.

The basic responsibility for studying performance expectations, measuring performance, and providing feedback rests with the superior. However, for subordinates to be truly committed to the accomplishment of work objectives, they need to be involved in the process of setting these work objectives. This does not mean that the superior sheds his authority or loses control. Rather, it implies that the setting of standards is best effected through a joint process whereby superior and subordinate have the planned opportunity to express their views and to share information in such a fashion that realistic standards are set which generate the commitment of both superior and subordinate. This linking process, from which work expectations and standards are developed and ranked, should not be viewed as a one-time exercise. Rather, performance expectations and standards should be examined jointly by superior and subordinate with planned regularity. Finally, it should be recognized and understood that position descriptions are dynamic and changing rather than static or constant. (See Exhibit 3.)

In essence, the basic responsibility for establishing both position descriptions and performance standards rests with the superior. Possessing the neces-

Exhibit 2: Job- and Performance-Related Information Exchange Process

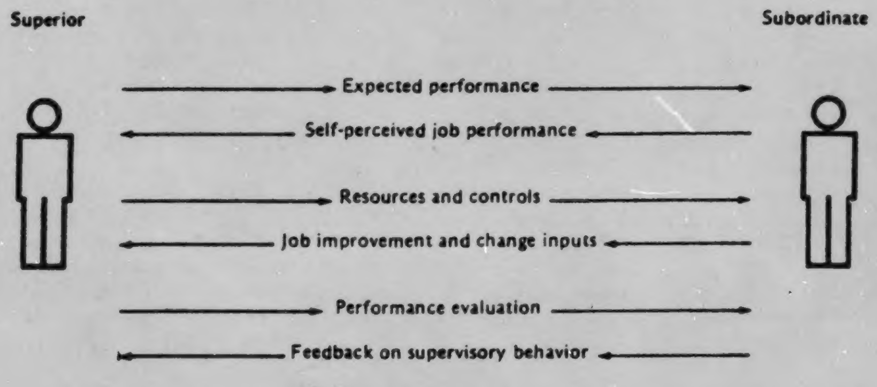
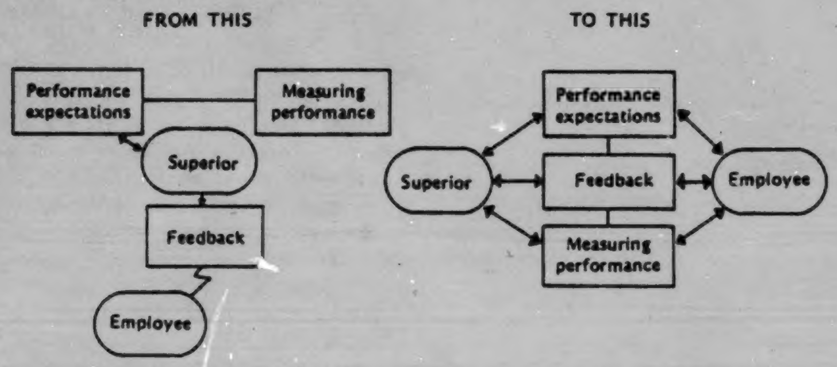

Superior
Subordinate
Expected performance
Self-perceived job performance
Resources and controls
Job improvement and change inputs
Performance evaluation
Feedback on supervisory behavior

Exhibit 3: Changing Information Patterns



sary organizational leverage, he should initiate the appropriate action with his subordinate that will result in a clear-cut position description and criteria for measuring performance. Again, just as performance criteria should be audited annually, so should position descriptions be viewed as moving pictures rather than still shots.

It should be understood that the establishment of position descriptions does not necessarily lead to structural rigidity or to a type of jurisdictional perspective. Quite to the contrary, it can and should result in a finer degree of coordination and total organizational comprehension. Imagine the effectiveness of a football team without specific assignments by position. You might get total cooperation but zero coordination. The same situation holds true in any effort that requires a conscious type of structuring. Unless a game plan is enunciated, and unless planners' roles are prescribed, one should not anticipate operational efficiency.

Don't Assume Understanding

For example, one company held a meeting to review the position descriptions of seven staff members who had one element in common—i.e., each reported to the same individual. Prior to the meeting, each person drew up his own position description as he personally perceived his role. In reviewing separately the role statements of each person, one other element of commonality occurred—i.e., in every single instance, there were major differences between the position as seen by the superior and the position as viewed by the subordinate. Further, the superior expressed dissatisfaction and surprise with "the way things were being carried on."

It should be understood that this was and is a well-run, profitable enterprise. One might ask how much more profitable it might have been if people had known what they were supposed to do.

Hard Talk and Human Relations

In the classic "Management and the Worker," Roethlisberger and Dickson talk about "logico-experimental" communication or communication that can be measured. For example, this room is 9′ x 12′, or the temperature is 78°. This type of communication is essentially nonjudgmental. It is factual. When you say this room is 9′ x 12′, you are describing its size and its dimensional characteristics, not whether it is big, small, or just right. Once agreement is reached on the measurements, discussion can then proceed to the merits or demerits of a 9′ x 12′ room.

In a similar manner, a position description is logico-experimental in nature. It tells about the major tasks, duties, and responsibilities associated with a particular activity set which is arrived at through joint consultation between superior and subordinate. Since joint consultation is employed, each should fully understand what the job entails.

Incidentally, one should not overlook the tremendous benefits that can be derived from working out a position description in a conscious, formal fashion between superior and subordinate. As a matter of fact, it might be well to do this at least once a year in order to assure the relevance of the description. Further, data gathering for position description purposes should be a continuous process.

Actually, the need for a concise spelling out of the job was best articulated by F.W. Taylor, who is often referred to as the Father of Scientific Management. Taylor, even though writing in his day of engineering and production emphasis, gave us principles that gain renewed importance today when productivity and job enrichment are vital to our country's ability to compete in global markets. According to Taylor, scientific management was structured about the following elements:

a. worker selection
b. explanation and motivation
c. individual training
d. the analysis of work to be done

To Taylor, productivity and performance were inextricably bound to management's ability to recognize the importance of the elements just cited and then to properly implement these elements in running an organization.

Of critical importance in the implementation phase is the development of a strong communications link between superior and subordinate. This link should focus primarily on the work itself and the behavior needed to get the work out. Factors external to the job should be matters of concern, but the manner in which the work is performed and actual results should be the paramount issues.

Quite often we focus on goals and never really decide what kind of business we're in. As a matter of fact, many organizations suffer considerably from the inability to properly understand the nature of their operations or "what they're supposed to do." We would imagine that attention to this matter by presidents and directors would have led to far fewer unsuccessful conglomerates where organizations were just kind of stuck together in random fashion.

In essence, firm objective and position descriptions are dynamic entities requiring continuous study, implementation, and evaluation. In the ultimate analysis, traditional position descriptions transfused into vital, working, dynamic vehicles just might be a "deus ex machina" for accomplishing objectives for both the organization and the individual.

12. What kinds of performance-related information can the employee(s) and supervisor(s) get from the position description?

13. What type of information would be found in a behavioral job description?

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ASSIGNMENT

The following question should be answered as completely as possible on separate paper. Two copies of your responses should be mailed to the instructor. One copy will be returned to you with the instructor's comments and the other will be retained as part of your course record.

Answer either one of these two questions.

1. *Argue for or against A) the scientific nature of position classification and B) the use of position classification by organizations and personnel administrations.*

or

2. *Describe a public organization's position classification program.*

CONSIDER: *What factors required the consideration of such a program?*

What levels of management and what departments were involved in the formulation and implementation of the system?

What were some of management's and the employees' initial and later reactions to the program?

What are the formal goals and rationale of the program?

Does the program satisfy the stated goals and rationale?

STUDY QUESTIONS: ANSWER KEY

1. Define the following terms:

Position:	A group of tasks assigned to one individual
Position Classification:	A grouping of jobs on some specified basis.

2. A. Summarize the rationale for position classification.

The rationale for position classification rests on these characteristics.

- Impartial, scientific approach
- Efficiency: cost control
- Equal pay for equal work - competitive equality
- Forecasting manpower requirements
- Improving performances, morale, and providing career ladders.
- Assisting management
- Determining work objectives
- Uniform technology

B. Explain how position classification is used as a management tool.

Position classification helps to maintain organizational goals and to assist with control and coordination of the organization.

3. Describe the clarifying role of position classification.

- It attempts to offer facts in a scientific manner.
- Detail becomes understandable and scientific.
- A impartial approach is used to avoid favoritism.
- It views a position as a conglomeration of tasks and responsibilities and avoids a consideration of the employee.

4. Summarize the principal uses and advantages of position classification.

   Position classification is used to assist with:

   - cost control
   - equal pay for equal work
   - simplification of budget preparation
   - recruitment
   - manpower planning
   - personnel statistics

   Its advantages include:

   - establishes a basis for manpower planning
   - establishes a basis for improving employee performance
   - establishes a basis for personnel decisions
   - establishes a uniform terminology
   - improves employee morale by establishing career ladders
   - assists in determining individual work objectives
   - provides a tool for management

5. Define the following terms:

Job Analysis:	the process of studying and collecting information relating to a specific job.
Position Specification:	a statement of the minimum acceptable human qualities necessary to perform a job
Job Classification:	a grouping of jobs on some specified basis.

6. List the basis of each position classification method.

   A. The Job Ranking Method: comparison on the basis of the whole position with a ranking in order of the positions difficulty or value to the institution

   B. The Job Classification Method: Specific tasks are analyzed on basis of their complexity and degree of difficulty. Levels of work (clerical or supervisory) are determined.

C. The Point Analysis Method: the position is broken down to job factors and point values are assigned to each factor. The position is classified on the basis of total point score.

D. The Factor Comparison System: same as point analysis but dollar values rather than points are immediately assigned to the factors. System also requires the selection of "Key" jobs to which all other jobs are compared.

E. The Castellion Method: the evaluation of positions is based upon the kinds of decisions made in or required from the job. Types of decisions are grouped and given a value. Positions requiring the same kind of decisions are grouped into classes.

F. The Time-Span Method: this method is also based upon decision-making. However decision-making is then analyzed by the amount or span of time required to reach an acceptable decision. Time span is then correlated with a level of abstraction and these levels are ranked in order of importance.

G. The Guide-Chart Profile Method: jobs are analyzed and measured based upon their importance to one another. Importance of the position is determined by the organization.

H. The Functional Method: tasks are broken out and analyzed by assigning them to functions and then to the level at which they are performed.

7. Summarize the advantages and disadvantages of the position classification systems.

The advantages include:

- description of what is being done and by whom
- provision of a formalized structure for obtaining and updating work-related information
- facilitation of communications through appropriate lines of responsibility
- assistance with maintaining employee morale and productivity by providing clear tasks and expectations
- contributions to planning employee training and development programs based on job descriptions

The disadvantages include:

- development of a formal, hierarchical job structure
- establishment of a differential reward structure
- viewing individuals as non-persons
- misrepresentation of itself as a value-free, objective, and scientific system
- supporting authority and superior-subordinate relationships
- performing analyses based on the parts rather than the whole
- concerning itself principally with productivity and efficiency
- creating an inflexible system supportive of the status quo

8. List the characteristic features of each of the following career systems:

A. Program Careers: based on the premises that employees will stay in the program organization careers - system is structured to permit movement throughout the organization.

B. Job - Oriented Careers: emphasis upon the job being performed, career movement unplanned and future of the individual relates to the future of the profession.

C. Rank-in-Corps Careers: rank in related to length of service, relationship of others in the same group, and general aptitudes. It focuses on the individual and the corps.

9. Define job description.

A job description is an organized, factual statement of the duties and responsibilities of a job.

10. What is the relationship between position classification and compensation plans?

Position classification is the basis upon which compensation plans are developed. Position classification is the process by which the dollar worth of jobs is established. Compensation plans reflect the series or levels of dollar worth. Position classification establishes differential rewards and compensation plans structure and formalize the rewards.

11. What factors should be considered by management when establishing their compensation philosophy?

- ability of the institution to pay
- the labor market
- worth of the total compensation package
- the total personnel program
- the type of firm and employment offered.

12. What kinds of performance-related information can the employee(s) and supervisor(s) get from the position description?

Employee's needs:

1. What is expected of them, i.e.: performance and behavior
2. What they can expect from their supervisors and organization relative to the impact on their work and their relationship to them
3. How their performance and behavior are perceived by their supervisors

Supervisor's needs:

1. How the employees increase their own job performance
2. Feedback on how supervisor affects employees work performance
3. Information on how employee feels he can improve his performance or other areas which can be changed to improve performance

13. What type of information would be found in a behavioral job description?

- Information which states the results of the job (objectives)
- How it should be accomplished (process)
- Purposeful and agreed upon information.

PA 848
MANAGEMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCES

MODULE 9:
COMPENSATION

PREPARED
BY:
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UNIVERSITY EXTERNAL STUDIES PROGRAM

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MODULE 9: COMPENSATION

KEY TERMS AND CONCEPTS

- Compensation
- Direct Compensation
- Indirect Compensation
- Wages
- Benefits
- Wage Surveys
- Prevailing Wage

INTRODUCTION

Compensation is the term given to the sum total of wages and benefits which pass from the employer to the employee in exchange for tasks performed. Compensation may be direct or indirect; that is, it may be in the form of wages or in the form of benefits and services. This module discusses the Why, What, and How of direct and indirect compensation. It will address such questions as: How do organizations utilize compensation to assist in attracting and retaining employees? How do organizations reward employees? How much should an employee be paid? What form(s) should the payment to employees take? Why are some forms of compensation more desirable to employees and/or employers?

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

After studying these module materials, you should be able to:

1. Give a rationale for compensation systems.
2. Describe the factors which affect an organization's compensation system.
3. Describe the methods of direct compensation.
4. Describe the purpose and types of indirect compensation.
5. Explain the problems, procedures, and concerns of public compensation administration.
6. Describe an organization's compensation program and its employees' knowledge of and response to the compensation program.

OVERVIEW

Objectives	Tasks	Resources	Evaluation
1. Give a rationale for compensation systems.	Study Question 1	Module Reading: A	Self
2. Describe the factors which affect an organization's compensation system.	Study Questions 2, 3	Module Reading: A	Self
3. Describe the methods of direct compensation.	Study Question 4	Module Reading: B	Self
4. Describe the purpose and types of indirect compensation.	Study Questions 5, 6, 7	Module Reading: C	Self
5. Explain the problems, procedures, and concerns of public compensation administration.	Study Questions 8, 9, 10	Module Readings: D, E	Self
6. Describe an organization's compensation program and its employees' knowledge of and response to the compensation program.	Module Assignment	Module Readings and Your Experience	Instructor Feedback

A. AN INTRODUCTION TO COMPENSATION

The greatest single cost to an organization is its people. The payroll and benefits systems will often represent fifty percent of the firm's cash flow. "Since 1937, wages and salaries have represented about 58 percent of the gross national product." (Glueck, 1974, p. 40) Given the magnitude of this cost, views on the role and importance of compensation as it effects motivation have received much attention and, as you might expect, have varied greatly.

In the early 1900's pay was the primary mode of compensation and was considered to be the primary motivator for stimulating employee productivity. By the 1930's human relations theorists were arguing that pay as a motivator ranked in the top ten, but there was not consensus as to its exact position and importance. The most recent research has indicated that pay, under certain circumstances, is an important motivator. That is, pay is critical to the extent that "1) there is a strong drive for a particular need, such as a physiological need, and 2) pay is seen as a way to satisfy this need." (Glueck, 1974, p. 407) Or, to paraphrase E.E. Lawler, Jr., pay is important to the employee to the extent that it represents the means to achieve desired ends. The implication of these "circumstances" is that once the pay that employees receive is sufficient to satisfy their basic needs, then pay will cease to be an important or primary motivator. At that point, other factors such as working conditions, work environment, recognition of accomplishments, and potential for advancement become equally if not more important than pay.

Not all compensation systems will be equally effective as motivators, for other variables, such as the organization's ability to pay and the composition of the work force, will color the scheme. The organization which intends to use pay as a motivator must be sure that it can withstand the increased financial drain for the increased personnel costs. These costs can be burdensome, and the employer must thoughtfully weigh its economic positions before making such commitments. The composition of the work force may to some degree influence the effectiveness of compensation plans. Lawler has found that there is no correlation between the importance of pay and a worker's intelligence, age, education or union status. However, the data would indicate that pay is less important to nonbusiness employees, high level employees, women, and urban dwellers. (Glueck 1974, p. 407)

It may be generally stated that pay will be a positive motivator when the "employee needs money to satisfy his needs and when he sees that better and greater performances will lead to more compensation. . ." (Glueck, 1974, p. 408)

The type and amount of compensation is influenced by many factors. An organization's decision in regard to general compensation policies and specific salary actions will be made with reference to the following factors.

1. *The specific job.* Compensation programs may vary based upon the nature of the job. Employees on production lines may be interested in "more time off," while management staff may be more concerned with tuition reimbursement or savings plans. As for specific salary actions, some jobs will deserve higher pay than others based upon such factors as the skill, knowledge, and ability required to perform the tasks and the degree of difficulty and levels of responsibility found in the job.

2. *General economic conditions.* National and regional economic conditions, full employment, inflation, and depression affect the type and amount of compensation the organization must offer to attract employees. When "times are tough" the employer may be able to cut many of its expensive compensation programs and still have a large labor pool from which to draw.

3. *The organization's ability to pay.* In the private sector productivity and profits will influence the type and amount of compensation. Public employers will be restricted by factors such as the amount of funding received or pay scales structured by bodies such as the Civil Service Commission.

4. *Statutory rates.* Some employers, e.g., public school systems, may be required to operate on the basis of benefit programs and pay scales which are based upon revenue received from the tax base.

5. *Unions.* Unions are very concerned with type and level of compensation. If they are strong, they are a force which will significantly affect the compensation program.

6. *Governmental actions.* The federal government will affect an employer's compensation policies through its employment level policies and wage controls and guidelines.*

Compensation systems are generally established through one of two formalized processes or sometimes through a combination of these processes. First, the system can be established through the process of union/management negotiations. The collective bargaining process generally establishes the compensation package for blue collar workers. Today, more and more white collar workers are becoming organized, and their compensation packages are also being established through collective bargaining. Position classification, determining the worth of jobs for pay purposes in conjunction with salary and benefit surveys, is the second mechanism utilized to create compensation systems. Position classification and salary and benefit surveys can be utilized for both blue and white collar positions.

If the purpose of these compensation systems is to contribute to employee performance and satisfaction, they should be designed so that they are stimulating, flexible, and equitable. Policies and procedures should be designed to ensure that the system is applied to all fairly. Benefits and services should reflect the desires of the organization's employees; standardized packages may not be adequate. The characteristics of the employee population will influence the type of benefits and services requested. Salary ranges should be broad enough and wage increase policy flexible enough to provide for effective reward programs. Also, broad ranges with flexible entry rates will allow the organization to pay what the market demands for recruiting purposes. In the unionized organization prescribed wage rates with predetermined increases are the norm.

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*NOTE: At this point the student may be curious as to why specific salary actions are highlighted and not just discussed within the general category of compensation. It is important that it be recognized as soon as possible that even though pay is only one form of compensation it can cause more problems for the administration than any other. The benefits employees may receive from insurance, medical and other benefit programs, and special services may be as great as from pay, and the administration of benefit and service programs may be as complex as salary packages. Nevertheless, most real or perceived employee problems will stem from pay.

STUDY QUESTIONS

1. State the relationship between pay and motivation.

2. List and discuss those factors which influence the amount, degree, and type of compensation.

3. Discuss the formalized processes which help to establish compensation systems and include those factors which should be considered in the design of compensation systems.

B. METHODS OF DIRECT COMPENSATION

Generally, two methods of direct compensation can be found. The first is based upon time worked, and the second is based upon the efficiency of the work performed. (Glueck, 1974, p. 422)

The oldest and most frequently used wage system is that based on time. Wages are computed by multiplying the hourly rate (established through negotiations or position classification studies) by the number of hours worked. Employees who are exempt from the overtime provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act may also be paid on an annual basis with deductions computed for time off the job.

Efficiency based wage systems were designed to promote increased employee efficiency in the private sector. Such methods are normally applied to manufacturing operators where output per employee is easily identifiable and measurable. The piecework plan is the most common of the efficiency methods; it is the simplest to calculate and provides the greatest financial incentive to produce. In this method, the employee's wage is computed by multiplying the number of discrete units or items of work completed by the rate of pay for each unit. A consequence of such piecework plans is that, since they reward productivity in terms of number of units and not necessarily in terms of quality, quality control is generally found to be necessary.

Suggestion systems are another form of efficiency compensation. The employees are rewarded with a financial bonus for creative suggestions which save the organization money or improve productivity.

Group incentive schemes, yet another form of efficiency compensation, are utilized when coordination of many individuals is essential to complete the task and it is impossible to measure individual output. Profit sharing is a group incentive approach which pays a regular share of the employer's profits to the employees in addition to normal compensation. Such plans are felt to be performance motivators since the employees will identify more closely with the organization and profit goal because of their participation.

Wage security systems are found in both the public and private sectors. They provide another dimension to direct compensation systems and have been established on the premise that, if individuals possess wage security, the pressures of daily competition are removed and they will be free to produce more effectively. The basic type of wage security system is seniority. (Glueck, 1974, p. 429) Seniority operates to protect or provide a job, under certain conditions, to those employees with the greatest service in the organization. Seniority can protect an individual's job when there is a layoff. Those with the least seniority will be laid off first, with layoff actions progressing up the seniority ladder. Seniority also affects recall rights because recall is made in the inverse order of layoffs. Employees who have low seniority are very familiar with the procedure of "last in/first out." When the organization is unionized, the labor contract specifies in detail the seniority provisions. Some employers who are not unionized will recognize an informal seniority system to offer some security to long-term employees.

Another type of wage security system is the employment contract. These are also found in both the public and private sectors. They may be established on a one year basis with renewal and salary advancement based upon a year-end review. Another form is the granting of a contract on a predefined but long-term basis with provisions for periodic salary review. An example of this is a ten year contract with yearly performance appraisals and termination only possible under extreme conditions. This type of contract is usually non-renewable.

STUDY QUESTIONS

4. Discuss the major points in the two methods of direct compensation.

C. INDIRECT COMPENSATION

Gaining an understanding of indirect compensation--benefits and services--will provide a challenge to the student of personnel administration since it is a very technical and complex subject. Therefore, for the purposes of this course, the general and most common types of benefits programs will be presented in a broad fashion.*

Indirect compensation in the form of benefits and services represent tax-free income to workers. Benefits packages can represent up to one third of the employer's compensation budget, yet most employees are not aware of the benefits they receive.

Benefits programs are a fairly recent development and have grown considerably over the past thirty years. Among the major contributing factors were the wage regulations imposed during the Second World War which forced unions to develop non-wage compensation in the form of benefits. The trend towards benefits development continues today, spurred by certain federally mandated benefits plans.

Management perceives the formal purpose or goal of indirect compensation programs as being two-fold. First, it is felt that good benefits and service programs will assist in attracting and retaining good employees. Second, such programs can also assist in increasing employee satisfaction and, consequently, performance. One informal goal of indirect compensation is negating union organizing activity. Benefits programs have been used as a tool to fight organizational unionization. A question that should be asked, however, is "Do indirect compensation packages meet these goals?" At this point it appears that the answer to this question is "No." For benefits and services to influence performance and turnovers, to increase employee satisfaction, and to act as a detriment to unionization, the employees must be aware of the benefits and services they receive. Evidence is lacking that would indicate that employees are aware of these programs or are familiar with the details of the plans. (Glueck, 1974, p. 453)

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*If the student wishes to investigate the subject in more detail, these two references are particularly useful:

Famularo, Joseph (ed). Handbook of Modern Personnel Administration. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1972.

Lord, Robert, "Proceedings of 3rd Annual Conference on Employee Benefits." Communication Channels, 1970.

For the purposes of discussion, indirect compensation will be grouped into two benefits categories--mandated and voluntary. Mandated benefits are those that are required by law and include workmen's compensation, unemployment compensation, and social security. The voluntary benefits which may also include negotiated benefits (which many employers feel are not at all voluntary but forced), include various types of insurance offerings, time-off programs, pensions and miscellaneous service.

Mandated Benefits

- Workmens Compensation
- Unemployment Compensation (State and Local governments excluded.)
- Social Security (Employees under the Railroad Retirement Act are excluded from coverage. State and local governments have the option of participating.)

Voluntary (and Negotiated) Benefits

- Time-off: paid holidays, vacations, sick leave, personal leave
- Insurance: life, hospital, medical, disability
- Pensions
- Services: Tuition reimbursement, recreation
- Miscellaneous: Shopping discount privileges

1. Mandated Benefits.

The mandated benefits have been enacted with the purpose of providing various types of minimum security to employees and include the following three programs.

a. *Workmen's Compensation* provides financial compensation to employees for death or permanent or total disabilities that have resulted from the working situation. All states require such compensation, but the requirements for the amount of coverage, payments, and procedures will vary from state to state. The entire cost of workmen's compensation is born by the employer who participates in private or state insurance plans. Compensation is structured in two ways: monetary reimbursement and/or the payment of medical expenses depending upon the nature and extent of the injury, with the amounts based upon fixed payment schedules. "Disability payments are often based on formulas of the employee's earning, modified by economic conditions such as the number of dependents." (Glueck, 1974, p. 453) Employees receive compensation for such things as accidents, occupational illnesses, and neuroses resulting from physical loss.

b. The *unemployment compensation* legislation is part of the 1935 Social Security law and provides subsistance payments to unemployed workers. To be eligible to receive this benefit, the individual must have worked a minimum number of weeks in a quarter, be unemployed, and be willing to accept employment when offered through the State Unemployment Compensation Commission. The period of compensation is limited, and the rate of payment varies and is calculated on established formulas. The cost of the insurance is born by the employer through the payment of a state tax which is generally 2.7 percent of the wage payroll and a federal tax of 0.4 percent to 2.9 percent. The state Unemployment Commission is responsible for making the determination as to whether or not the individual will receive unemployment compensation.

c. *Social Security* is a mandated pension system. Social security payments are made by the individual and matched by the employer. The benefits cover the worker during retirement and include disability and survivor payments. The system is based on a payroll tax which causes much concern. A payroll tax is regressive, that is, it places an excessive burden on low and middle income individuals. Also, the required employee costs are great. These required social security costs may cause small employers to drop any additional private pension plans they may carry because combined costs would represent an excessive financial burden.

2. Voluntary (and Negotiated) Benefits

Voluntary benefits have developed initially as a substitue for wages. Today they still represent a type of income but are now perceived as a supplement to wages. Voluntary benefits include the following.

a. *Compensation for time off* can be of many types. Paid holidays are found to be the most frequently offered time-off benefit. (Glueck, 1974, p. 459) Holidays will vary based upon region (Eastern and mid-Atlantic states give more holidays than mountain states), ethnic background of employees (Columbus Day), and type of employee (office employees are found to receive more paid holidays than unskilled employees). Amount of time-off is also found to vary with the type of business. Recently the federal government has created mini-vacation periods through legislating the Monday holiday law which provides for three day holiday weekends during the year. Paid vacations are offered by many organizations to the workers based upon length of service. This is a very expensive benefit to the employer, but it is felt necessary since a rested and relaxed employee is more productive.

Other time-off benefits are offered with less thought to productivity and more concern for individual duty and welfare.

Sick leave allowances are one example of this. A fixed number of sick days are allowed for the employee each year. In some plans, these days must be taken or lost; in other plans, they are allowed to accrue and may be utilized to supplement other leaves, such as vacation. Some employers pay a bonus for such days earned but not taken. Jury and trial witness duty and funeral leave are also offered by many firms.

b. Many employers participate in life and health *insurance plans* for employees. The plan may vary in coverage and cost with the employer paying the total cost of the premium or paying a percentage combined with an employee contribution rate.

"Group life insurance is one of the oldest and most widely available employee benefit." (Glueck, 1974, p. 462) Group insurance covers all employees in a stated group, may benefit the employees' families, and allows for coverage without the requirement of passing a physical examination. The organization premium rate is based on the characteristics of the employee group to be insured. Employers may also purchase accident, sickness, and long-term disability insurance for their employees. These plans provide the individual with protection for long-term illnesses or permanent disability. The benefit payment may be totally paid by the employer or combined with an employee contribution. The actual amount received will vary when this plan is tied into other payment sources, such as workmen's compensation.

Hospital and medical benefits are one of the most costly benefit programs to the employer, but, also, the one which employees prefer over all others. Hospital and general medical costs have escalated to such an extent that many individuals could not, on their own, pay for necessary medical treatment. Unions have recognized this need and have done some hard negotiating for increased hospital and medical benefits. Blue Cross and Blue Shield plans provide the most common basic hospital, medical, and surgical coverage. Additional coverage may be structured to add specific benefits or comprehensive major medical coverage. Specified benefit plans, often called the Menu Approach, allow employees as a group to select only the benefits they desire, whereas comprehensive coverage offers a set group of benefits. The specified benefits approach is often preferred by unions because it can provide for benefit coverage that is desired but not covered under general comprehensive plans. Such specified benefits can often be obtained without additional deductions for the employee, are easily identifiable, and will more readily impress union members.

c. *Services* are those miscellaneous benefits which are not common to the majority of indirect compensation packages offered by most employers. They may be offered because the employees have requested such a service, or the employer may voluntarily do so because of low cost, accessibility, or employer benefit. Examples include the following:

- Low Cost Purchasing: A luggage manufacturer offers to sell employees luggage at cost.
- Accessibility: A city may hold a picnic for employees in a city-owned park.
- Employer benefit: Tuition remission is offered since the costs to the organization are felt to be balanced by improved employee productivity, skills, and morale.

Other services may be financially related.

Services such as credit unions and employee savings plans are often offered. These plans are designed to assist employees in obtaining major, high cost purchases and building financial security.

d. *Pension plans* were established to provide increased security during retirement, a non-working period. They developed in response to employers' legitimate concern for the welfare of their employees, union inability to negotiate for wages during World War II, and federal government activity (Social Security).

Pensions can be either public or private. Some basic differences exist between public and private pension programs. (Social Security, a mandated public pension program, was discussed earlier in this module.) The major differences between the two is that public plans invest more in federal, state, and local securities and bonds and a great deal less in stock than do private plans. (Glueck, 1974, p. 498) Another difference is the political nature of public plans. Public pensions must be negotiated in a political forum, and their structure will be influenced by tax and election concerns.

There are also similarities between public and private pension programs. First, any pension is "a fixed amount (not wages) paid by a former employer or his representatives at regular intervals to a person or the person's surviving dependents for past services performed." (Glueck, 1974, p. 484) Second, the amount of payment retired individuals or their dependents will receive will vary according to the income that the individuals earned during their period of employment.

Before proceeding with a discussion of public and private pension funds it is necessary to first define the following basic pension terminology.

Vesting - The right of an employee to participate in a pension plan, especially in the event of the termination of employment before retirement age and usually providing that minimum time and service requirements are met.

Portability - The ability to transfer pension credits from one employer to another.

Contributory - Employee and employer both sharing costs.

Noncontributory - Employers paying all of the costs.

Funded - Pension plans financed by setting money aside in special funds.

Nonfunded - Pension payments made from current funds.

Pension plans, in the private sector, are voluntary programs. Employees with highest incomes and unionized workers participate to the greatest degree. "Only 18 percent of unionized employees are not covered by private pensions, while 56 percent of nonunionized employees have no pensions." (Glueck, 1974, p. 490)

The amount the worker will receive upon retirement will depend upon each plan's benefit formula. Generally, the formula will calculate the pension benefit by multiplying the average earnings (average earnings is determined by averaging the salary of x number of final years of employment) times the number of years of service times a predetermined percentage (between 1 and 3 percent). (Glueck, 1974, p. 494)

The administration of pension plans is a complex management task. The federal government has attempted to simplify and monitor private funds through the Employee Retirement and Investment Security Act (ERISA). One major concern of ERISA is vesting or the right of the employee to participate in a pension plan, and several types of vesting are involved.

- Deferred full vesting. This is found in ninety percent of the vested plans. It requires that an employee meet age and service requirements before he/she receives a nonforfeitable right to pension payments at retirement.
- Deferred graded vesting. This is found in approximately nine percent of private plans. Here the worker acquires the right to a percentage of benefits when he/she meets minimum age and service requirements. The percentage will increase with service until full benefits are vested.
- Immediate full vesting. Only about one percent of the pension plans offer this type of program in which all employees are immediately eligible to participate. (Glueck, 1974, p. 495)

Portable or transferable private pension programs are rare. These pension plans are designed to move with the employee even if he/she should change employers. The plan continues to grow, unbroken over the employee's lifetime. It is not based upon a single employer and will be honored and continued by subsequent employers. Teachers Insurance and Annuity Association (TIAA) offers a portable plan to employees of non-profit, tax-exempt educational and scientific insitituions. The National Health and Welfare Retirement Association (NHWRA) offers a portable plan to employees in non-profit hospitals, health, and welfare organizations.

Both contributory and non-contributory private pension plans are also found, but data is not available as to the percentage of use of each.

Most private pension plans are funded by insured plans (annuities purchased from an insurance company with the insurance company investing the premiums and paying the pensions) or trusteed plans (pension funds invested in stocks and bonds). The trusteed pension fund is the most frequently used.

As an employer, government views the primary objective of a retirement system as the improvement of staff. (Stahl, 1971, p. 340) Such plans are thought to contribute to planning for recruitment and replacement and to promote administrative efficiency. Prior to the establishment of formalized retirement programs and pension benefits, the employees would be retained almost until it was physically impossible for them to work.

Most public pension programs are structured in a very similar manner and share many common characteristics. The basic common characteristics, (funding, contribution, portability, and eligibility) will be briefly outlined.

- The majority of public pension programs are funded under an actuarial reserve plan. An actuarial reserve plan is fully financed and cost guaranteed. It operates on the basis of an invested and interest earning reserve fund.
- "The federal system and almost all state and municipal systems are contributory." (Stahl, p. 343) The burden of payment is divided between the organization and the worker.
- Portability is generally lacking. However, some states are now moving towards establishing statewide retirement systems.
- The benefits of public pension programs may be drawn for three purposes. The most common reason for drawing pension benefits is retirement based on age. A typical public pension plan will allow the worker to qualify for the annuity when he/she satisfies one of various combinations of age and service requirements. Retirement on the basis of disability is provided. The employee must meet a requirement for minimum service before payments will be authorized. Also, some public pension plans (federal) permit the drawing of an annuity whenever an individual is laid-off. (Stahl, 1971, p. 346) The minimum age and service requirements are lowered for those employees affected by retrenchment.

STUDY QUESTIONS

5. What benefits does the organization feel it will receive from offering indirect compensation programs? Is this true? Why?

6. Describe the various types of indirect compensation.

7. What are the basic common characteristics of most public pension programs?

D. COMPENSATION ADMINISTRATION

One of the most important functions of the personnel department is administering the compensation system. This would include such tasks as benefits counseling, processing salary actions (including tax deductions), conducting wage and benefit surveys, and general recordkeeping.

Providing intitial benefits information and assisting employees in signing up for the desired benefits can be a complex task. If the employer provides only a standard package, the task will be routine. If, however, the organization provides a variety of benefits programs and offers many diverse services, the job of informing employees of their options and monitoring the various programs and services will be very difficult.

Putting the worker on the payroll and processing all future salary actions can also be a complex and difficult task. There is a great deal of detail in salary administration, and small mistakes (making an incorrect entry on a payroll form) could cause an employee financial hardship if a paycheck is late or cause embarassment with tax officials if incorrect deductions are made.

Performing wage and benefit surveys is another complex task required for effective compensation administration.

Wage and benefit surveys provide the data from which pay scales and benefit programs and services are established and monitored. The personnel department is reponsible for conducting such surveys and should do so periodically to ensure the employer's competitive position. For example, a general review should be conducted annually; a more frequent, spot review may also be performed, especially for those jobs which are difficult to fill or for jobs which experience a high turnover. When conducting such surveys the analyst should determine in advance:

- the jobs to be covered. These should include the most crucial and the most common position.
- the employers to be contacted or surveyed. Generally the comparison is made with competitors or similar organizations and those which are most dominant in the area. Information can also be obtained from professional sources such as the U.S. Department of Labor's Occupational Earnings Surveys.
- the method to be utilized in collecting the data. Mailed questionnaires, telephone inquiries, and personal interviews are all used. Personal interviews are the most accurate but also the most costly. They are usually only conducted for small surveys involving very critical positions. The mailed questionnaire is the most frequently used and the cheapest. Since personal contact is absent, the questionnaire must be well defined to obtain the desired information. Gathering large amounts of data is difficult on the telephone, but it can be used to follow-up on mailed surveys. (Glueck, 1974, p. 418)

Compensation administration involves the initiating, processing, and monitoring of a lot of complex, detailed information. The personnel department must maintain many compensation records and produce many reports on benefits, services, and salaries. Needless to say, this causes quite a record keeping problem. The use of computers has been of great assistance in improving the efficiency of personnel payroll systems. If the organization is having difficulty coordinating its programs and experiences frequent personnel changes, the speed and accuracy of the computer may prove invaluable. Computerization can assist the personnel department in achieving efficient and effective compensation administration by:

- Producing periodic reports. Such reports can provide needed information on present costs and the extent of benefit usage.
- Providing special reporting systems. Cost estimates and statistical analysis can be performed to determine future financial requirements.
- Producing special studies. Future benefits and costs can be simulated. (Glueck, 1974, p. 476)

One compensation administration question related to record keeping which has received much attention recently is whether pay systems are to be kept secret. In the public sector the pay structures and individual salaries are generally known. In some public jurisdictions salary is required by law to be a matter of public record. However, the private sector employers generally keep such information secret. This practice is based upon the belief that it prevents employee dissatisfaction and comparative arguments over salary. But certain problems can be found where secrecy operates. Employees do continue to compare salaries (some with slight exaggeration), and, when salaries are not known, employees will tend to overestimate the salaries of others. Employee dissatisfaction could be less if information on real salaries were available. If individual salary data must be kept private, it is best to have general compensation information (policies, pay plans with general ranges) available to employees for their personal satisfaction and to assist in assuring equity in the compensation system.

STUDY QUESTIONS

8. Discuss the problems of compensation administration, the use of computers, and procedures for wage surveys.

E. THE PRINCIPLE OF PREVAILING WAGE

The following article describes the principle of prevailing wages and its implications for compensation systems by the public sector. Arguments are presented for the need of public employers to adjust their compensation programs to make them competitive with private employers. Read this article and answer the study questions at the end of it.

- "Aspects of Wage Determination in Local Government Employment" by David Lewin. (reprinted with permission of the publisher of Public Administration Review, March/April 1974, pp. 149-155.)

Aspects of Wage Determination in Local Government Employment

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■ An important criterion governing the determination of wages in local government employment is the prevailing wage principle. This principle, rationalized by various economic and political considerations, presumably requires public employers to pay the same wage rates as private employers for comparable jobs. The empirical evidence presented here, however, indicates that rather than reflecting this form or wage parity, occupational wage structures in major American municipalities are more egalitarian than those found in private labor markets: local governments pay relatively more for unskilled, semiskilled, and skilled craft workers but relatively less for high-level professionals, managerial and executive employees, than employers in the private sector.

These wage relationships are further elucidated through examination of the wage-setting process among local government employers in Los Angeles, California. The structure of decision making in these governments, characterized by fractionalized (multiple-party) management and the vesting of final authority over wage matters in politically constituted governing boards, substantially contributes to the observed pattern of public-private wage differentials in this city. Jurisdictional governing boards seem particularly responsive to the size and thus potential voting power of an employee group, and these responses are evident even before the emergence of formal collective bargaining. Implications of these conclusions for public management and the quality of services offered by government are briefly considered.

In recent years, state and local governments in the United States have experienced rapid growth of employment, substantial increases in the unionization of their work forces, and, concomitantly, expanded use of collective bargaining in the making of decisions concerning employment relationships. These developments, together with the worsening financial plight of many governments, have sparked renewed interest in public wage decisions and the processes by which such decisions are reached.[1] Since received wage theory, which rests on assumptions and some empirical evidence about the private sector,[2] seems inapplicable to public employment, the question of governmental wage determination remains largely unanswered.

This article seeks to illuminate the process of public wage determination through examination of the "prevailing wage" principle in local government employment. First, conceptual underpinnings of the prevailing wage rule currently operative at many levels of government are presented. Next, the implementation of this principle is reviewed by analyzing muncipal wage structures and the relationship between public and private sector wage rates in major American cities. Then, in order to better understand the observed pattern of intersectoral wage relationships, wage setting processes of local government employers in one of these cities, Los Angeles, California, are examined. Finally, some implications of this study for management and the quality of public services rendered by local government are considered.

The Principle of Prevailing Wages

An important decision rule affecting wage determination in some public jurisdictions is the "prevailing wage" rule or "like pay for like service." At the federal level, this principle is clearly enunciated in the Federal Salary Reform Act of 1962 as follows:[3]

(1) There be equal pay for substantially equal work;

(2) Pay distinctions be maintained in keeping with work and performance distinctions;

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(3) Federal pay rates be comparable with private enterprise pay rates for the same levels of work; and

(4) Pay levels for the statutory pay systems be interrelated.

In state and local governments, various definitions of prevailing wages abound, the principle typically being stated in broad terms. For example, Section 425 of the Charter of the City of Los Angeles suggests that:

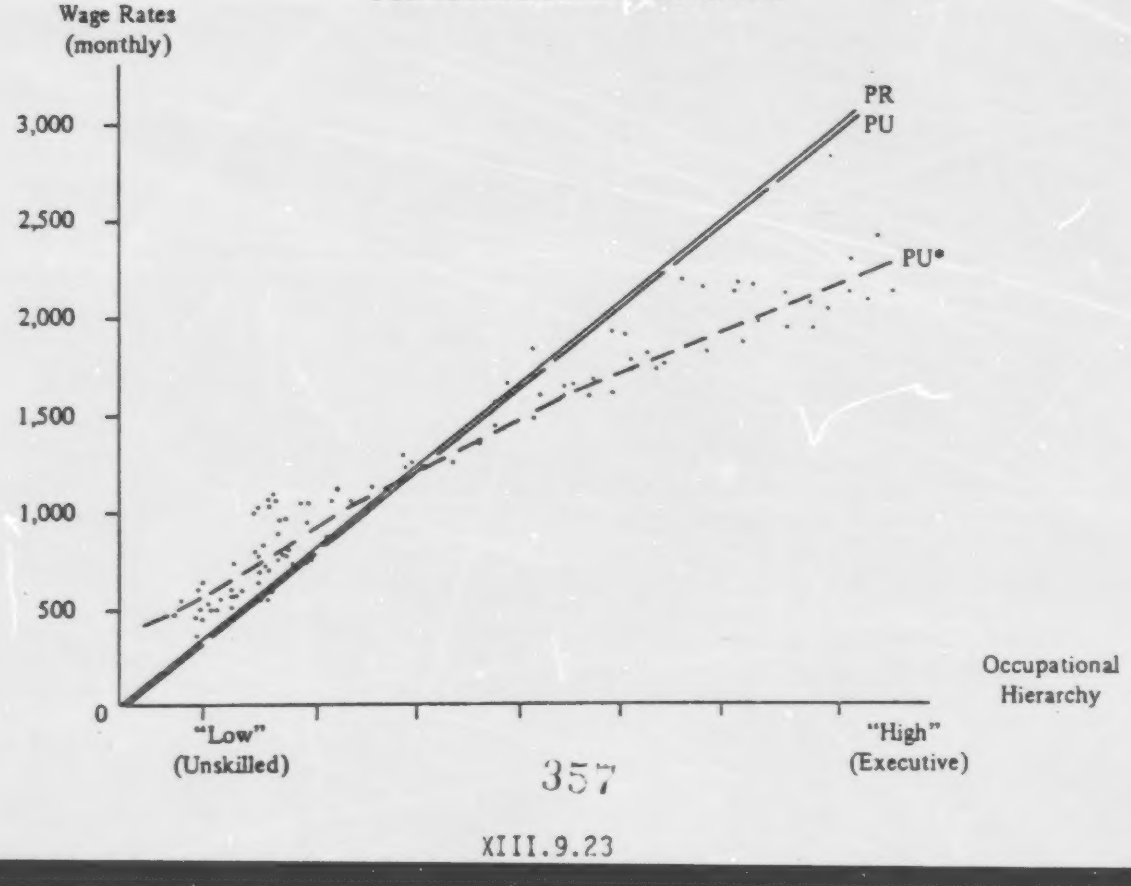
> In fixing the compensation to be paid to persons in the City's employ, the [City] Council and every other authority authorized to fix salaries and wages shall, in each instance, provide a salary or wage at least equal to the prevailing salary or wage for the same equality of service rendered to private persons, firms, or corporations under similar employment in case such prevailing salary or wage can be ascertained.[4]

While one can hardly pretend that there is a well-developed theory of prevailing wages, a review of the provisions above suggests some of the rationale underlying governmental adherence to this wage-setting decision rule. By paying prevailing wages, a government is thought to evidence its concern with both economic and political considerations. With regard to the former, a public employer must compete for workers in the labor market and is thus constrained to pay wages at least approximating those existing in the market in order to obtain a work force. In a perfectly competitive labor market, failure to pay the prevailing wage would render a public jurisdiction incapable of securing a labor force. A more likely consequence of such a wage policy, given the variety of imperfections that abound in labor (and product) markets, is the incursion of high rates of job vacancy, prolonged vacancies, rapid turnover, and the attraction of a relatively lower-quality worker to the public sector. Since any of these consequences would interfere with a government's ability to carry out the functions for which it has been created—governance of and provision of services to the community—the prevailing wage principle serves as a cornerstone of governmental wage policy.

Political considerations also may explain a public employer's concern with the payment of prevailing wages. The ultimate decision makers at

FIGURE 1

PUBLIC-PRIVATE WAGE RELATIONSHIPS FOR COUNTERPART OCCUPATIONS



all levels of government are elected officials who are responsive to political pressures. Some of these pressures emanate from public workers dissatisfied with their wage rates, rates allegedly lower than those paid to comparable workers in the private sector. The consequent political pressures generated by these dissatisfactions have caused at least some public jurisdictions to adopt prevailing wage policies. By stating that they intend to pay wages that are similar to if not identical with those found in private employment, jurisdictional decision makers seem to treat their employees fairly, thus hoping to avoid further political consequences that might arise from the continued wage-related grievances of public workers. While it is difficult to disentangle the economic and political forces affecting public wage decisions, and to measure the relative contribution of each, both seem important to understanding why some governments pursue a prevailing wage policy.

Public-Private Wage Relationships

If implementation of the prevailing wage doctrine in public employment occurred uniformly across all counterpart occupations (i.e., occupations common to the public and private sectors), public wage rates would correspond to those existing in private employment. Intersectoral wage differentials would result only from lags in data collection and processing time. Such wage relationships are shown in Figure 1 (curves PR and PU).

It appears, however, that this graphical portrayal does not accurately depict the relationship between public and private sector wage rates in the United States. Data from the U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, indicate that in major U.S. cities municipal workers in maintenance and custodial, office clerical, and data processing occupations, are more highly compensated than their counterparts in both the federal service and private industry employment (see Table I).[5]

As a group, municipal office clerical workers received relatively higher pay in nine of the 11 cities surveyed and in the other two cities (Kansas City and New Orleans) muncipal salaries for several individual clerical positions were greater than those offered by private industry or the federal government for the same work. Muncipal data processing workers received higher pay than their private sector counterparts in six of the cities surveyed, and higher pay than comparable federal workers in nine of these cities. In the maintenance and custodial category, muncipal salaries were higher than those paid by local private industry in seven of the 11 surveyed cities. The relative salary advantages of municipal maintenance and custodial workers were particularly large in Newark, New York, and Chicago.

While these data must be interpreted with caution and are suggestive rather than conclusive, they indicate a consistent pattern of higher pay for municipal employees in a variety of occupations than exists for comparable workers in either private industry or the federal government. Not only are these findings contrary to the conventional notion that public workers are undercompensated relative to their counterparts in private employment, but they also suggest that the concept of public-private wage parity embodied in the prevailing wage doctrine has been substantially modified. In other words, whereas the prevailing wage rule contains the implication that the pay of public workers must be "brought up to" the level of salaries in private employment, the reality is that government employees are more highly paid than private workers in those occupations for which comparative wage data are available. The slope of the line labeled PU in Figure 1 would have to be modified accordingly to accurately reflect such wage relationships.

These conclusions are further supported and partially extended by the results of recent research into the public wage-setting process in a specific urban labor market, Los Angeles, California.[6] Three local jurisdictions account for the bulk of public employment in Los Angeles—the City of Los Angeles, the County of Los Angeles, and the Los Angeles City School Districts. Each government follows a prevailing wage principle, which is implemented by taking a jointly conducted annual wage and salary survey.[7] Wage data are obtained from firms that are privately owned, operate within the boundaries of Los Angeles County, and employ more than 250 persons. The firms are distributed among five major industry groupings: (1) manufacturing; (2) utilities, transportation, and communication; (3) wholesale and retail trade; (4) finance, insurance, and real estate; and (5) services. After the data are processed and published, each jurisdiction uses them independently in its specific wage-setting process.

The survey data obtained as of March 1, 1968, and March 1, 1969, for each of 56 "counterpart" occupations were converted to a base of 100 and compared with the monthly salaries actually established by these governments during fiscal 1968-69

TABLE I

PUBLIC-PRIVATE PAY RELATIONSHIPS IN MAJOR AMERICAN CITIES

(private industry average salaries = 100)

Occupational Category	Atlanta (May 1970)	Boston (June 1970)	Buffalo (October 1970)	Chicago (May 1970)	Houston (March 1971)	Kansas City (May 1970)
Maintenance and custodial						
City-private	98	101	91	126	105	86
Office clerical						
City-private	108	109	122	108	121	97
City-federal	106	102	119	108	115	87
Data-Processing						
City-private	92	108	104	106	96	94
City-federal	116	110	121	119	106	96

	Los Angeles (July 1970)	New Orleans (May 1970)	New York (April 1970)	Newark (January 1970)	Philadelphia (July 1970)
Maintenance and custodial					
City-private	118	81	142	142	113
Office clerical					
City-private	118	92	101	106	133
City-federal	123	82	107	103	126
Data-Processing					
City-private	118	85	96	119	122
City-federal	139	86	114	118	144

[1] Adapted from Stephen H. Perloff, "Comparing Muncipal Salaries with Industry and Federal Pay," *Monthly Labor Review*, Vol. 94 (October 1971), p. 49.

and 1969-70. A similar procedure, using different data sources, was followed for 44 managerial and executive positions in Los Angeles County (wage data for these occupations are not provided by the annual survey).[8] This technique yielded a series of wage ratios which were used to construct the occupational hierarchy and the occupational wage structure (curve PU*) shown graphically in Figure 1.[9]

The ratios range from a high of 153.3 for the position of laundry worker to a low of 76.5 for the executive jobs of health officer, MD, and county counsel. In general, the highest ratios occur among low-skill jobs and some craft positions; the lowest ratios are found in executive and managerial jobs. Eight of the 12 lowest ranking positions in this public occupational hierarchy yielded ratios in excess of 110 per cent. Conversely, each of the 16 highest ranking jobs had a ratio below 90 per cent. Thus, in Los Angeles, low-ranking (i.e., unskilled and semi-skilled) positions and some craft jobs are overcompensated relative to salaries in the private sector (as is the case in several American municipalities);[10] and the highest ranking jobs, such as executive and managerial types and to some extent high-level professional and technical occupations, consistently receive lower pay than that offered by private employers for comparable positions (see curves PR and PU* on Figure 1).

Explaining Intersector Wage Relationships

Why is the occupational wage structure in local government employment apparently more egalitarian than in the private sector? An explanation may be obtained by examining the public wage-setting process in a specific urban labor market—once again, Los Angeles, California.

Wage rates for public employees in Los Angeles are increasingly subject to determination by a process of formal collective bargaining. The extent of unionization and other forms of organization among workers in the city and county, though historically small, has risen so markedly in recent years that approximately three out of every four employees of these jurisdictions are now members of labor organizations (unions or associations).[11] In 1968, the County of Los Angeles adopted an ordinance providing specific procedures for union recognition and unit determination, and committed itself to a policy of formal collective bargaining.[12] The county also established a separate labor relations function in its organizational structure. The City of Los Angeles adopted similar labor relations policies in 1970 and 1971.[13] Thus, in recent years the wage-setting system in Los Angeles' public sector has evolved from a "management-administered" to a "collectively-bargained" type.[14]

These developments, however, should not obscure the large amount of informal wage bargaining that has traditionally taken place in Los Angeles' local government. The nature of such bargaining is related to the structure of public management in Los Angeles. In these jurisdictions, managerial authority over wage (and non-wage) decisions is divided between administrative staffs and governing boards. The former are concerned with the collection and processing of wage data and the development of wage recommendations for submission to the appropriate governing board; administrative personnel are the technicians who implement the prevailing wage principle. In contrast, a jurisdictional governing board, whose members are periodically voted into office by the electorate, has final authority over wage recommendations and may legislate wage schedules quite different from those proposed by its administrative staff (whether or not such actions are consistent with the prevailing wage rule).

Even further subdivisions of managerial responsibility over wage decisions in local government may be noted. In the City of Los Angeles, for example, the chief administrative officer (CAO), the City Council, the Personnel Committee, the Employee Relations Board, and the mayor, all have a voice in wage decisions. At each step in the wage-setting process these managerial actors are faced with the claims of various individuals and interest groups seeking to influence public wage decisions: individual employees press for "equity" adjustments; low-paid workers demand at least "subsistence" wages; union spokesmen argue that relevant wage recommendations do not reflect the results of recently negotiated agreements in the private sector. The managerial response to such demands may vary depending, among other things, upon the source and strength of the demand and the number of employees affected, but clearly such a decision-making structure suggests the potential for numerous operational definitions of "prevailing wages."

Not only is managerial authority over wage decisions fractionalized in Los Angeles' local government, but the politically constituted governing boards make final judgments about wage rates. Members of these boards are elected to their positions and clearly are concerned with their political images and the necessity of being re-elected (or moving on to higher elected office). Such decision makers may be quite responsive to the wage claims of various interest groups, particularly as these claims intensify and involve more and more workers. As our data indicate, managers of local governments respond to these pressures by raising the wages of unskilled, semi-skilled, and skilled craft employees beyond wages paid comparable workers in private employment.[15] This is done because employees in these occupations represent the largest proportional segment of local government work forces and, through their voting power, constitute a potential threat to the political survival of jurisdictional governing board members.

Conversely, executives, managers, and high-level professionals are a relatively small group, are not particularly cohesive, and have few if any discernible counterparts in the private sector.[16] Consequently, they have little political impact. Indeed, jurisdictional governing boards may attempt to convey an impression of "fiscal responsibility" by holding down the salaries of workers in these occupations, resulting in public salaries lower than those offered by private employers. Thus the pattern of public-private wage differentials in Los Angeles and in other American cities suggests that wage decisions of politically constituted governing boards are affected by the size and the voting power of a particular employee group.

We have demonstrated that despite their stated adherence to the principle of prevailing wages, some local government employers in the United States pay higher wages than private employers (and the federal government) in the same labor markets for workers in office clerical, data processing, and maintenance and custodial positions. In one of these labor markets, Los Angeles, California, empirical evidence indicates that the public occupational wage structure is relatively more egalitarian than in the private sector. In explaining wage relations in Los Angeles' local governments, it was suggested that the structure of public decision making, characterized by "fractionalized" (i.e., multiple-party) management and the vesting of final authority in a politically constituted governing board, substantially contributed to the pattern of public-private wage differentials. Jurisdictional governing boards seemed particularly responsive to the size and thus potential voting power of an employee group.[17]

These conclusions raise important substantive questions about the management and organization of public services, questions which may be only briefly considered here. First, what are the consequences of a relatively egalitarian occupational wage structure for the quality of service rendered by a government? Because public employment is much greater proportionately in low-skill, semiskilled, and skilled craft positions than in executive and managerial jobs, costs appear to be substantially greater than they would be, given a more conventional wage structure. These costs must obviously be borne by the taxpaying public. The impact upon benefits, i.e., the quality of services forthcoming, is more difficult to determine. Conventional labor market theory suggests that in the making of employment decisions, workers seek to maximize comparative net advantage.[18] Since wages serve as a useful (although only partial) measure of such advantages, it may be hypothesized that a relatively high-quality worker is attracted to the public sector in those jobs for which local government pays relatively high wages, and that relatively low-quality workers are attracted to those positions for which governments pay relatively low wages. On balance, this may raise the overall level of public services above what it might otherwise be, perhaps even to the point of equaling or surpassing the additional costs required. However, if the quality of management is more important to the type of public service rendered than the quality of other workers (e.g., clerical or craft employees), an egalitarian wage policy may have deleterious effects upon the quality of public services.

Second, if public employers depart substantially from the principle of prevailing wages in setting wage rates for counterpart jobs, what factors influence the determination of wages for positions that are exclusive (or nearly so) to the public sector? The most rapid employment growth in state and local government during recent years has occurred among occupations such as policeman, teacher, social worker, and corrections officer–jobs which have few if any counterparts in private employment. No principle of prevailing wages, at least as conventially defined, can be applied to these positions; yet wage decisions remain to be made. Lacking a specific wage-setting standard (even one subject to as many variations in application as the prevailing wage rule), government employers must either rely on internal criteria (such as job evaluation) or simply follow each other's lead in setting wages for exclusively public positions. Whether these are optimal wage setting actions and how they affect the quality of government services remains problematic.[19]

Finally, this study has implications for the changing nature of employer-employee relations in government. As previously noted, unionization and collective bargaining are rapidly becoming typical in state and local government, suggesting the possibility of additional upward pressure on public wage rates. Some have argued that the power of organized public employees *vis-à-vis* their employer is substantially greater than that of comparable private sector workers.[20] However, our analysis suggests that, not unlike private employment, considerable informal bargaining precedes the emergence of formal collective bargaining in the public sector, and thus further unionization of local government employees may make more explicit existing patterns of public compensation rather than defining fundamentally new public wage trends.[21] Indeed, public employees may well focus their primary attention on the non-wage aspects of bargaining, as recent developments among teachers and social workers suggest.[22] Public managers should take little solace in this observation, however; if the industrial relations experience of the private sector is any guide, non-wage issues present bargaining problems at least as difficult as those encountered in negotiating over wage aspects of the employment relationship.

Notes

1. See, for example, articles in recent issues of *Industrial Relations* and the *Industrial and Labor Relations Review*.
2. Richard A. Lester, "Shortcomings of Marginal Analysis for Wage-Employment Problems," *American Economic Review*, Vol. 36 (March 1946), pp. 63-82; and Fritz Machlup, "Marginal Analysis and Empirical Research," *American Economic Review*, Vol. 36 (September 1946), pp. 547-554.
3. U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, "Government Employees' Salary Trends," *Current Wage Developments* (September 1971), p. 35.
4. Town Hall, *Pay Policies for Public Personnel: A Report of the Municipal Government Section of Town Hall*, Robert Kingsley, Chairman (Los Angeles: Town Hall, 1961), p. 21.
5. Stephen H. Perloff, "Comparing Municipal Salaries with Industry and Federal Pay," *Monthly Labor Review*, Vol. 94 (October 1971), pp. 46-50.
6. For a full exposition of this study, see David Lewin, *Wage Determination in Local Government Employment* (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of California, Los Angeles, 1971).
7. City of Los Angeles, *et al.*, *Wage and Salary Survey in Los Angeles County*, March 1, 1972.
8. Elaboration on the techniques, data sources, and limitations of this methodology is provided in Lewin, *op. cit.*, pp. 342-366. Executive positions are generally excluded from wage surveys, thus hindering analysis of intersectoral wage relationships.
9. A complete list of the occupations and wage ratios is available, upon request, from the author.
10. Though these data reflect wage relationships in Los Angeles, the similarity in timing of the BLS surveys allows us to generalize the findings cross-sectionally.
11. Communication to the author from the City of Los Angeles, November 28, 1972; and County of Los Angeles, *Employee Relations Basic Data*, Second Edition (Los Angeles County Board of Supervisors, July 1, 1972).
12. County of Los Angeles, *Employee Relations Ordinance*, Ordinance No. 9646 (October 1968).
13. See City of Los Angeles, *Los Angeles Administrative Code*, Ordinance No. 141,527, "Employer-Employee Relations" (February 1971). The code provisions provide for "meeting, conferring, and consulting," rather than collective bargaining, between the city and its employees.
14. The terms are due to George W. Taylor. See his "Wage Determination Processes," in *New Concepts in Wage Determination*, George W. Taylor and Frank C. Pierson (eds.) (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1957), pp. 89-111.
15. Thus, during fiscal 1969-70, wage ratios in Los Angeles' local government included 153.3 for laundry worker, 120.5 for clerk, 129.0 for painter, 134.1 for plumber, and 131.6 for electrician. The City of Los Angeles had a minimum wage of $2.53 per hour during this period, and the County $2.42 per hour, compared with the hourly minimum of $1.60 for private industry specified in the Fair Labor Standards Act.
16. Furthermore, the salary of a government's highest elected official, such as a mayor, may act as a "lid" on the wages of executives, managers, and some professional employees.
17. However, the challenge of unionism and formal collective bargaining may cause governmental decision-making processes to become more centralized and thus less fractionalized. See John F. Burton, Jr., "Local Government Bargaining and Management Structure," *Industrial Relations*, Vol. 11 (May 1972), pp. 123-139.
18. Simon Rottenberg, "On Choice in Labor Markets," in *Labor and Trade Unionism*, Walter Galenson and Seymour M. Lipsett (eds.) (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1960), pp. 40-55.
19. See, for example, David Lewin, "Analysis of Wage Parity for Protective Services in Local Government Employment," *Industrial Relations*, Vol. 12 (February 1973).
20. Harry H. Wellington and Ralph K. Winter, Jr., *The Unions and the Cities*, Studies of Unionism in Government (Washington, D.C.: The Brookings Institution, 1971), *passim*. A more systematic analysis is presented in Ronald G. Ehrenberg, *Relative Wages, Incremental Budgeting, and the Demand for State and Local Government Employees*, unpublished manuscript, revised version, December 1971, Table 1, p.25.
21. This interpretation also suggests that the main wage impact of public unions may occur prior to the emergence of formal collective bargaining in government.
22. See Michael H. Moskow, J. Joseph Lowenberg, and Edward C. Koziara, *Collective Bargaining in Public Employment* (New York: Random House, 1970), chapter four; and David T. Stanley, *Managing Local Government Under Union Pressure*, Studies of Unionism in Government (Washington, D. C.: The Brookings Institution, 1972), chapter five.

STUDY QUESTIONS

9. Describe the basic factors of federal prevailing wage philosophy.

10. Discuss government's rationale for following the prevailing wage philosophy.

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ASSIGNMENT

The following questions should be answered as completely as possible on separate paper. Two copies of your responses should be mailed to the instructor. One copy will be returned to you with the instructor's comments and the other will be retained as part of your course record.

1. *Discuss the following points with a "blue collar" and a "white collar" employee in the private sector and report on the discussions.*
   a. *According to which method (time or efficiency) are they paid?*
   b. *Are they satisfied with their rate of pay for the work they perform? Why or why not?*
   c. *Would they prefer to have the same automatic rates as all others performing similar work or prefer to have rates of pay based on individual performance.*
   d. *Do they feel wages are administered fairly?*
   e. *What changes, if any, would they make to their organization's pay structure and policies?*
2. *Choose employees in a public organization and interview them in reference to their benefit package (not wages). Ask them, at least, the following questions. Report the result including your assessment of the similarities and differences among the responses (suggesting possible reasons for them).*
   a. *What benefits does the employer offer?*
   b. *Does the individual participate in the benefits program? Why or why not?*
   c. *What changes would they make in the coverage, if any, and why?*
   d. *Do they feel the employer is offering everything it could?*

STUDY QUESTIONS

Answer Key

1. Pay is only an important motivator as long as an employee needs it to meet his or her basic living needs. Once these needs are not to the satisfaction of the employee, other factors such as job health security benefits, work environment, and advancement potential become increasingly important as motivators.

2. a. Specific job. Some jobs do merit higher compensation than others based on such factors as required skill, difficulty and responsibility.

   b. General economic conditions. Such factors affect the employers ability and need to pay.

   c. Organization's ability to pay. Funding, profits, and productivity affect the level of compensation.

   d. Statutory rates. Pay scales may be set by boards and depend upon revenues for tax base.

   e. Unions. Will influence compensation (direct and indirect).

3. a. Negotiations between union and management will establish compensation levels and combinations.

   b. Position classification determines the worth of job for compensation purposes.

   c. Factors for design. Compensation systems should be stimulating, flexible, and equitable to allow for effective reward programs and recruiting systems.

4. a. Efficiency methods designed to prorate efficiency. Applied to manufacturing operations where output is identifiable and measurable. Such methods include the piecework plan, suggestion system and group incentive schemes.

   b. Time is the basis of the other principal method. This includes the older and frequently used formula for computing wages by multiplying the hourly rate times the number of hours worked.

   c. A new dimension to compensation systems is provided by wage security systems which are based upon the premise that if pressures of competition are removed the individual will be more productive. This includes the employment contract, guaranteed annual wage, and seniority.

5. a. They will assist in attracting and retaining good personnel, improving employee performance, and reducing turnovers through increasing employee satisfaction. They also represent a tool to fight unionization.

   b. No. Most employees are not aware of the benefits and services they receive.

6. a. Legally mandated benefits are designed to meet financial emergencies and include workman compensation and social security.

   b. Pensions are designed for the period after work stops.

   c. Pay-for-time-off-the-job includes vacations, holidays and various types of leaves.

   d. Insurance plans include health, medical, and accident plans.

   e. General and miscellaneous services may include educational and recreational benefits.

7. Most public pensions:

   a. are based on an invested and interest-earning reserve fund;

   b. divide the burden of payment between the organization and the employee (contributory);

   c. are only good as long as the employee does not change employers or organizations;

   d. allow pensions to be drawn upon retirement (given that age and service requirements are met), forced retirement due to disability (given that minimum service requirement is met), and forced lay-offs (similar to workmen's compensation).

8. a. Need cooperation between personnel and payroll departments for coordination of services.

   b. Computers are necessary because of the large amounts of complex data. Frequent personnel changes make the speed and accuracy of computers necessary.

   c. Wage and benefit surveys indicate the organization's position (relative to its competition) for recruiting and rewarding personnel. When conducting these surveys, consider:

      - the jobs to be covered including the most critical or common positions.

      - the employers to be surveyed. Should be similar or dominate in the area.

      - methods for data collection. Could include questionnaires, telephone inquiries or personal interviews.

9. The form factors which contribute to the prevailing wage principle are (a) equal pay for equal work, (b) differences in pay should reflect differences in work and performance, (c) federal pay rates should be competitive, and (d) pay levels in pay systems should be interrelated.

10. The concerns are both economic and political. As to economics, public employers must compete with private employers for workers. Non-competitive wages would lead to high turnover, difficult recruitment, and a low quality work force.

    Political concerns reflect a response to political pressure. There is also a need to be perceived as treating employees fairly.

PA 848
MANAGEMENT OF HUMAN RESOURCES

MODULE 10:
DISCIPLINE AND GRIEVANCE

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MODULE 10: DISCIPLINE AND GRIEVANCE

KEY TERMS AND CONCEPTS

- Discipline
- Work Rules
- Suspension
- Discharge
- Grievance
- Appeal

INTRODUCTION

Discipline and grievance are important in an organization's personnel program since no organization is so well managed and no personnel system so effective that correction and punishment can be completely avoided. This module will discuss the factors and elements that should be considered in designing and establishing a disciplinary system. This includes an examination of such constraining variables as the organization's size, stability, leadership, and employees, the legal requirements and restrictions, and union bargaining agreements. Once these factors have been considered, attention will shift to the four elements common to successful disciplinary systems; namely, 1) establishment of work and behavior rules, 2) communication of work and behavior rules to employees, 3) establishment of a tool to assess behavior, and 4) establishment of procedures and/or penalties to deal with rule infractions. Within the framework of the preceding factors and elements, traditional and modern approaches to the implementation of disciplinary systems will be discussed, and four administrative types--hierarchical, peer, quasi-legal, modified hierarchical--of disciplinary systems will be reviewed. Ranges in the severity of disciplinary actions will also be explored by providing examples of penalties of varying severity which will be related to the nature of the infraction. Finally, grievance procedures will be discussed in light of the opportunity which they provide to employees to address problems which frequently arise from the administration of disciplinary systems.

LEARNING OBJECTIVES

When you have completed this module, you should be able to:

1. State the purpose of a disciplinary process.
2. Describe a disciplinary system in terms of the variables which it should consider and its basic elements.
3. Define and distinguish between the traditional and modern approaches to discipline.
4. Describe the four types of discipline systems presented in this module.
5. Explain the types of disciplinary actions, including the conditions and limitations of their use.
6. Summarize the purpose and use of grievance and appeal procedures.
7. Describe any discipline and grievance systems and assess their problems and implications for employees according to your own values.

OVERVIEW

Objectives	Tasks	Resources	Evaluation
1. State the purpose of a disciplinary process.	Study Question 1	Module Reading: A	Self
2. Describe a disciplinary system in terms of the variables which it should consider and its basic elements.	Study Questions 2, 3	Module Reading: A	Self
3. Define and distinguish between the traditional and modern approaches to discipline.	Study Questions 4, 5	Module Reading: A	Self
4. Describe the four types of discipline systems presented in this module.	Study Question 6	Module Reading: B	Self
5. Explain the types of disciplinary actions, including the conditions and limitations of their use.	Study Questions 7, 8	Module Reading: B	Self
6. Summarize the purpose and use of grievance and appeal procedures.	Study Questions 9, 10, 11	Module Reading: B	Self
7. Describe any discipline and grievance systems and assess their problems and implications for employees according to your own values.	Module Assignment	Module Readings and Your Experience	Instructor Feedback

A. THE DISCIPLINARY SYSTEM

1. Variables to Consider

Discipline procedures are normally designed to assure effective job performance and adherence to generally acceptable work rules. (Glueck, 1974, p. 607) Discipline in both public and private organizations, therefore, is concerned with on-the-job behavior. Off-the-job behavior should only be a consideration if it affects work behavior. The following work rule provides an example of off-the-job employee behavior which may become part of an organization's concern: An employee may have another position outside of the organization unless it shall interfere with the employee's performance of job duties. If work performance is found to be unsatisfactory as a result of the other position, the employee shall be required to terminate one position.

When considering the type of discipline process to be established by an organization, the following variables should be considered.

a. *Size and stability*. The smaller and/or more volatile the organization, the less likely it will be to have a formalized discipline system. The larger and/or more stable the organization, the more likely it will be to have a high degree of formality of discipline rules and processes. Size and stability may operate as one variable or may, in other combinations or individually, influence the presence or absence of a disciplinary system. An organization may be small and volatile, small and stable, large and volatile or large and stable.

b. *Leadership*. Discipline methods will be influenced by the type of leadership and the leaders' experiences. If the leadership style is traditional (requires that coordination, control, and decision-making be granted to one individual), then the discipline system will be highly formalized and paternalistic. A modern, participatory leadership style supports a less structured and more flexible and open discipline system.

c. *Work group*. A collective sense of what is acceptable will be established by the work group. Only those individuals who find the organizational norms compatible with their personal norms will become long-term employees.

d. *Employees*. Each individual employee's background and experiences will influence what type of discipline system he/she will find acceptable. If any employees cannot live with the established norms, they 1) resign, 2) fight the system or ignore the behavioral norms and are terminated, or 3) stay within the organization because of financial or other factors and superficially accept the norms when operating within the context of the organization.

e. *Laws.* Laws do exist which protect the rights of employees and define employer actions which are not permissible. For example, employees cannot be required to work without pay or be physically punished.

f. *Unions.* A negotiated collective bargaining agreement will establish contractual discipline procedures. (Glueck, 1974, p. 606)

2. Elements of a Disciplinary System

There are four elements which are normally part of a disciplinary system. In an effective disciplinary system all four elements should be present; the absence of one would, at best, subvert the process and, at worst, cause the collapse of the system.

The first element refers to the need for management to establish work and behavior rules. Such rules should only cover on-the-job employee behavior and can be directly and indirectly related to productivity. The rules can be established through various means, such as these:

- Management by objectives. For example, management determines that the objective of the sales force is to increase sales by x%. New target companies for their product are banks. For sales representatives to increase quotas the correct company image must be projected. New work rules--a conservative dress code for sales staff--are created as a result of management by objectives to facilitate the achievement of the organization's objectives.

- Analysis of employee performance or problems. An analysis of employee performance using performance evaluations can provide management with information which can be used to modify employee rules. At times employees may state that the rules have hindered their productivity. For example, the agency requires all employees to take their coffee break from 10:15 to 10:30. An analysis of performance evaluations of the computer section finds that, since this rule required that section to completely shut down, production actually declined. Such a review could cause management to institute rotating breaks.

An analysis of employee problems may provide valuable information since employees normally will only bring forward complaints which appear to them to be serious. These are usually work-related. Employees operate on the basis of what is actually occurring and how the rules actually affect the organization while management operates on the basis of what they want to happen.

- Discussion between management and employee representatives. This has many similarities to the preceding discussion. Essentially this means of establishing work rules recognizes the importance of involving employees in determining their work environment which includes the work rules. In this instance, rules are established jointly by management and employees and modified jointly by them as the need arises through any of the above methods.

It is necessary that the work rules be mutually acceptable to both management and employees to be operative. Examples of work related rules are provided in the following listing.

"I. Rules directly related to productivity

  A. Time Rules

    1. Starting and late times
    2. Maximum break and lunch times
    3. Maximum absenteeism.

  B. Prohibited behavior rules.

    1. No sleeping on the job
    2. No drinking on the job
    3. Limited nonemployer activities during working hours

  C. Insubordination rules

    1. Penalties for refusal to obey supervisors
    2. Rules against slow downs and sit-downs

  D. Rules emphasizing laws

    1. Theft rules
    2. Falsification rules

E. Safety Rules

1. No smoking rules
2. Sanitation requirements
3. Rules prohibiting fighting
4. Rules prohibiting dangerous weapons

II. Rules indirectly related to productivity

A. Prevention of moonlighting

B. Prohibition of gambling

C. Clothing and uniform regulations

D. Prohibition of selling or soliciting at work." (Glueck, 1974, p. 608)

The second element is the communication of the work rules to the employees. They must be adequately informed of the rules by which they are expected to abide. Employee handbooks or manuals, staff announcements on bulletin boards or with pay checks, and union contracts are some of the mechanisms through which such information can be conveyed to employees. If the employees or their representatives participate in the design of the rules and if they feel the rules are fair and work related, they will assist in the dissemination of the information. The communication between employer and employee, however, should continue after the rules have been implemented. Customs such as those relating to dress and the way of doing business change, and rules need up-dating to assure their contemporary relevance, applicability, and acceptability.

The third necessary element is the establishment of a tool to assess behavior. "In most organizations, performance evaluation is the mechanism for assessing work behavior deficiency." (Glueck, 1974, p. 608) Some formalized tool should be established to cite and investigate rule-breaking behavior. When this is left to general observation, verbal analysis, and discussion, assessment can become (or can be perceived as) arbitrary and capricious.

The fourth element concerns what is to be done once rule-breaking behavior has occurred and usually involves administering punishment or attempting to motivate change. (Glueck, 1974, p. 608) Management usually establishes a formalized process to deal with rule breaking. Formalized processes are generally structured to consider the type, severity, and frequency of the rule-breaking behavior. Disciplinary actions are also normally progressive. For example, when employee A is ten minutes late in reporting for work and has no previous record of tardiness, the supervisor would proably take no action. However, if the same employee were late three times in a two week period the supervisor would discuss the problem formally with the employee. If the infraction should occur again, the supervisor may then dock the employee's pay or suspend or terminate the employee. At this point, also, a formalized process with standardized actions to be taken is necessary to assure that all employees are treated fairly and that the system operates in an equitable manner.

3. Approaches to Discipline

Controlling rule-breaking or ineffective employee behavior is a function of the supervisory role; yet, it is a task which most supervisors would prefer to avoid. Most individuals do not enjoy punishing others; they feel uncomfortable and embarrassed. Supervisors will often overlook minor infractions rather than take action.

Once the ineffective behavior has been observed, how is the supervisor to deal with it? What type of controls can be utilized and what approaches should be considered? It is first important to note that the establishment of work rules and a discipline process (direct control) by the organization and the existance of peer pressure and group norms (indirect control) will control most employee behavior. However, the supervisor must deal with some individuals who will not recognize or comply with these rules or norms. In such cases disciplinary action must be taken. The disciplinary approach utilized may be either traditional or modern.

Odiorne describes the traditional discipline process as consisting of "1) listing the crimes, 2) attaching punishments to each, 3) promulgating the list and, 4) applying punishment to each act." (Glueck, 1974, p. 617) He also states that traditional or punitive discipline has nine characteristics:

"1. Discipline is what supervisors apply to subordinates, never the reverse.

2. The past is the arbiter of present and future actions.

3. Discipline is punishment for forbidden actions, and punishment should be directly proportional to the severity of the offense.

4. The effect of punishment is to deter others from performing these acts.

5. If the forbidden is continuing or accelerating, increasing the severity of punishment to the next offenders is in order.

6. If the guilty individual cannot be isolated, the whole group should be punished.

7. Absolute consistency in punishment must be maintained at all times and in all cases.

8. The severity of the punishment for the second offense should always be more severe than for the first identical offense.

9. Punishment should be given maximum publicity to deter future misbehavior." (Glueck, 1974, p. 617)

A modern disciplinary approach, or as Odiorne terms it, discipline by objectives, would include the following six steps:

"1. Discipline at work is for the most part voluntarily accepted and if not voluntarily accepted it is not legitimate.

2. Discipline is not a punishment system but a behavior modifier.

3. The past provides useful experience in defining and changing behavior but is not an infallible guide to right and wrong.

4. Contribution to objectives is a reasonable guide as to when to depart from rules and regulations.

5. Rules and regulations should be viewed periodically against organizational objectives to see if they are still productive.

6. Individual discipline by objectives makes each individual responsible for his own output, and the individual differences are explainable in individual results." (Glueck, 1974, pp. 617-618)

The type of approach, traditional or modern, that the supervisor would use would normally be established by the organization, and in most instances it is best that organizational guidelines be followed. The organization establishes policies which it feels are necessary for its effectiveness. If the supervisor should not agree with the descriptive approach and decides to informally institute a different discipline approach in lieu of the formal one, the supervisor may expect certain problems to arise. First, this will cause confusion among the supervisor's employees since they will not be sure of exactly what work behavior is expected of them nor will they be certain of what actions management will take in a given situation. Second, the simultaneous operation of two different approaches would deter the consistent and equitable administration of discipline. Third, if other employees observe a group being treated in a different or "special" manner, morale problems may develop. What then can supervisors do if they disagree with or feel the organization's discipline approach is ineffective? The best step to take is to meet with a representative of the department responsible for the administration of the discipline process. The supervisors should try to gain an understanding of why and how the process was developed, the history of the issue, the management philosophy upon which the design was based and instances of employee reaction to the process. As a second step, the supervisors may wish to provide the personnel analyst with their observations of how the process is actually working and list specific instances where it was ineffective. Such discussions will give the supervisors a better understanding of their role and the processes they must administer and can provide the organization with valuable information which will assist it in responding to employee needs.

STUDY QUESTIONS

1. What are the concerns of and basis for the establishment of a discipline process?

2. Discuss the variables which will affect the type of discipline process which the organization establishes to meet its goals.

3. What are the elements of a disciplinary system?

4. Discuss the two approaches to discipline.
   Include:
   a) brief summary of the characteristics of traditional discipline.
   b) brief summary of the characteristics of a modern disciplinary approach.

5. Compare the major assumptions that the traditional and modern disciplinary systems make about employees

B. ADMINISTRATION OF DISCIPLINARY SYSTEMS

1. Types of Disciplinary Systems

There are certain factors which should operate when administering any discipline system. First, the process should be formalized. All employees must recognize that the organization is concerned with maintaining effective work performance. Second, the process should be communicated to all employees. Each individual should be made aware of work rules and the probable results of rule-breaking behavior. Third, discipline should be administered in a timely fashion. Neither the affected employee nor the organization will benefit from a drawn out, demoralizing process. Discipline should follow as close to the rule-breaking action as the investigatory process will allow. Fourth, the system should be applied consistently and equitably. If the system is to be accepted by the employees, it must be considered realistic and fair.

Within this framework, there are four types of discipline systems which are normally found in non-unionized situations and which the organization may select. They are: a) the hierarchical disciplinary system, b) the peer disciplinary system, c) the quasi-legal disciplinary system, and d) the modified hierarchical system.

a. The hierarchical discipline system is the most commonly found system in industry; it is traditional and discipline is administered by the supervisor. "This system creates the conditions which allow a supervisor who might be arbitrary, wrong, or ineffective himself to be a policeman, judge, and jury over the employee." (Glueck, 1974, p. 621) There is an advantage to the organization from this sytem in that this system is more easily monitored and controlled. It would most often be found in traditional and highly structured and formalized organizations.

b. Peer disciplinary systems utilize independent (i.e., any employee from a different work group) or related (i.e., an employee from a similar work group) peers to assess an employee's rule-breaking behavior and recommend the action to be taken. (Glueck, 1974, p. 623) This type of system is most commonly found in the legal and medical professions and on college and university campuses. That is, peer supervision is found most frequently among those groups who in daily work situations, practice self-supervision--generally self-employed professionals. Professional associations set general standards and monitor unacceptable behavior to protect the profession.

c. The quasi-judicial disciplinary system calls for an independent outsider to administer the process. This is somewhat similar to the use of an arbitrator in unionized situations. Some public jursidictions, colleges and universities, and a few industrial organizations have utilized this concept by creating an independent ombudsman position. The advantage of this approach is that employees perceive independent assessors as being more objective and fair. The drawback to this system is that the independent assessor can not make decisions, only recommendations.

d. Modified hierarchical discipline systems are traditional in that they provide a procedure requiring discipline through regular channels within the organization. They are modified to the extent that the process includes someone other than the supervisor. The function of the third party is to review the facts to determine if proper action has been taken. Many business organizations are trying this modified system or using it in conjunction with other systems. It has advantages in that the immediate supervisor, who is most familiar with the situation, is involved in the process, and it promotes supervisor/employee communication. At the same time, the process will be more acceptable to employees because of the review of an objective third party. Its disadvantages are that supervisors may feel there is a lack of faith in their judgment and that their authority is being threatened.

All of the aforementoned discipline systems can be found operating in various types of organizations today. No one firm rule of thumb can be offered to determine what type of system may be best for any employer. However, one general suggestion can be made. "A study of the history of justice under various systems in the public domain would indicate justice is much more likely under systems that provide for independent assessment of evidence and judgements than one in which the superior is prosecutor, judge, and jury." (Glueck, 1974, p. 625) It also appears that discipline systems are needed in some form. We can hope, however, that future developments of management science and philosophy will allow us to rely less on negative restraints and more on positive employee/employer cooperations. (Stahl, 1971, p. 313)

2. Disciplinary Actions

Disciplinary actions are the penalties which are applied for a violation of work rules. The purpose of the penalty is to deter ineffective behavior and improve future performance. Penalties may vary widely in severity and can range from an informal discussion to termination of services.

The least severe penalty is an informal discussion between supervisor and subordinate. The discussion should be based upon the facts of the violation (directed to the specific behavior not the whole individual), why the rule is necessary, and what behavior the supervisor expects to see in the future. The supervisor could extend the session to include constructive counseling. This informal warning or reprimand will work for most violations. If the violation of work rules should be repeated, the supervisor will again discuss the specific violation formally with the employee. The supervisor will then either give an oral or written warning and may also have the incident entered into the subordinates personnel file. (Glueck, 1974, p. 618)

Reassignment to other duties may also be utilized. However, this technique must be used carefully for reassignment is normally used as a positive tool for an employee development program. Negative or punitive reassignment involves the assignment of less desirable duties with fewer rewards. In effect, the employee is on trial, and the employee's behavior in the new position will determine if and when the employee is to be called back. When a superior does not wish to fire an employee but wants the employee out of the organization, reassignment can also be used to force a resignation. Employees who previously performed responsible duties and were provided with support staff and a pleasant environment will quickly get the hint when they find themselves counting paperclips alone at the back of the office. This practice may be morally repugnant, but it is frequently practiced. It saves the supervisor from the uncomfortable and embarassing task of firing an employee and provides the employee a benefit in that the employee can state "resigned" rather than "fired" on his/her resume.

Suspension without pay is a common disciplinary action. This is normally taken if repeated violations have occurred or the first violation is sufficiently serious to warrant action short of termination. Suspensions can range from one to thirty days off although the average is approximately three to five days. The usefulness of suspension without pay is doubtful. The financial loss caused by suspension could put the individual under enough strain to cancel out any possible performance improvement incentive. "The main utility for suspension is in cases where some unfortunate incident of misconduct on the job requires temporary removal of the employee from the work environment or where doubt of guilt in some instance necessitates a period of investigation." (Stahl, 1971, p. 311)

Discharge or removal from the organization is the most extreme penalty and is the superior's last option. This is a drastic and often embarassing action but can be the most humane for it provides a clean break and allows the employee to make a new start. Two factors, union influence and the reluctance of superiors to use this option, operate to limit the use of discharge as a disciplinary action. Unions attempt to construct elaborate, complex, and time consuming removal procedures. Many supervisors will avoid discharge because of the great difficulty in dealing with removal procedures. Also the supervisor may just naturally be reluctant to take such drastic action against another person. If discharge is unavoidable, however, there are certain procedural guidelines that should be followed:

1. The facts should be established; verified, written procedures should be followed; and consultations with other managers or personnel representatives should be held.

2. The notification of discharge should be made within a relatively short period (approximately 24 hours) after the occurrence of the incident. The superior should avoid an emotional confrontation when advising the subordinate of the discharge.

3. To avoid embarassment, the discharge should be done at the end of the work day or work week.

4. The employee should be told facts. These would include the date, reason for discharge, and any severance arrangements.

5. Do not get into emotional or physical confrontations.
6. Document what transpired at the termination meeting with a memo to the employee's file. (Glueck, 1974, p. 620)

STUDY QUESTIONS

6. Identify which type of discipline system is operating in each of the following situations (e.g., hierarchical, peer, quasi-legal, modified hierarchical):

   a. The censoring of a lawyer by the bar association.

   b. John's supervisor wishes to take disciplinary action because of John's excessive absenteeism. A representative from the Personnel Department and an employee in John's classification participate in the process.

   c. Susan has failed to complete her work assignments and meet the required deadlines for the third time in two weeks. Her supervisor assesses the situation and gives her a verbal and written reprimand.

   d. The director of the state unemployment compensation office in Logistical, Pennsylvania requests that a representative from the state welfare division attend an upcoming grievance hearing.

7. What are the various types of disciplinary actions?

8. What factors are necessary to assure that discipline will be effective? Why are they necessary?

C. GRIEVANCES

The discipline process, as previously discussed, addresses work-related problems as seen from the employer's point of view. The grievance procedure on the other hand, attempts to address work-related problems as seen from the employee's point of view. When any group of individuals is thrown together, disagreements and complaints, misunderstandings, rivalry, and jealousy are certain to develop. (Stahl, 1971, p. 181) The grievance procedure is a formal mechanism which operates to bring the causes of such problems forward for possible resolution.

The term grievance is generally considered to embrace employee objections to actions taken by management (usually in reference to discipline), working conditions, and management policy and procedures. (Stahl, 1971, p. 315) In the public sector a further distinction is made in which "appeal" is used to refer specifically to those grievances arising out of disciplinary actions. The appeal procedure is sufficiently different from the general grievance procedure to warrant separate treatment and will be presented in detail following the general discussion of grievances.

The literature on Personnel Administration generally recognizes three purposes which are served by the grievance procedure. First, it deters small and manageable problems from becoming large and complex problems. When management promotes the resolution of small problems, it will often prevent future headaches. When a problem is recognized early on when it may affect only a small portion of the organization, its resolution is less costly in terms of poor employee morale and lost productivity. Second, in organizations where disciplinary procedures exist, the grievance procedure provides a line of communications from employees to management. Management will often benefit from the legitimate concerns of its employees, and both parties will benefit from improved understanding of each other's function and goals. Third, for those organizations which are unionized, the grievance procedure can assist in clearing up contract ambiguities. The parties will be made aware of contract language difficulties which were unforeseen during negotiations. (Glueck, 1974, p. 596)

The types of problems which may be handled through the grievance procedure can vary, but the majority are found to include some or all of those things which are basic to personnel administration: classification, selection, wage and benefit administration, discipline. For those employers that are unionized, the collective bargaining agreement will spell out in detail exactly what is grievable along with the specifics of the procedure to be followed. "The most frequent cases of grievances, according to the U.S. Department of Labor, are employee discipline, seniority decisions at promotion or layoff time, work assignment, management rights, and compensation and benefits." (Glueck, 1974, p. 596)

Now that the why and what of grievance have been discussed the how will be presented. A grievance procedure is a series of steps through which employee complaints are processed. Generally, the procedure contains three or four steps with the final step often being arbitration by an outside party. A variation of this occurs where the entire process is considered to have two phases. The first, the informal phase, is very short and basic. It requires that the employee present his/her problem verbally in an informal meeting to the immediate supervisor. There will often be a meeting of the minds, and the second phase, the formal procedure, need not be initiated. Where the informal phase is used, it is done so with the belief that it represents less of a threat to both parties and communication will be more open and responsive and results more acceptable than that which would occur in even the best formal procedures.

The formal grievance procedure is more complex and time consuming. It requires that the grievant put the complaint in writing and that managerial responses be in writing. It also establishes time periods for the completion of each step. The following illustration should provide the student with a basic understanding of the structure of a grievance procedure.

STEP I: IMMEDIATE SUPERVISORS

The grievance is filed in writing with the immediate supervisor. Some procedures will require that the complaint and all subsequent responses follow a predetermined format. It is usually required that the grievant state the nature of the complaint and the remedy sought and that it be signed and dated. If agreement is reached at Step I, the supervisors must state in writing the factors they considered and the remedy instituted, and it must be signed and dated. If the supervisors deny the grievance, the reasons for denial must be provided, and the form must be signed and dated. The majority of grievances are resolved at this level.

The procedure would set a time limit for a) bringing the grievance forward (ten days from the event which constitutes the basis of the grievance) b) the meeting (supervisors must meet with the employees five days after receipt of the grievance), and c) the supervisors response (five days after the meeting of the parties). If the grievance is not settled at Step I, the grievant has x days to take the grievance in writing to the next step.

STEP II: MID MANAGEMENT

In small organizations this could be the general manager or administrative officer. In larger organizations this could be the department head. A respresentative of the personnel department may or may not be present at this step. The administrator must meet with the grievant within x days and respond in writing within x days. If the grievance is not settled at Step II the grievant has x days to take the grievance in writing to the next step.

STEP III: TOP MANAGEMENT OR PERSONNEL DEPARTMENT

In large organizations this step would involve the general manager or agency director. Often these individuals are replaced in the procedure by the personnel department. The rationale for the use of the personnel department is that it has no vested interest in the situation and its decision will be unbiased. The administrator has x days to meet with the grievant and x days to respond in writing. If this is the final step in the grievance procedure, the employee must accept the decision handed down at this level.

If the grievance is not handled at the intervening steps, some procedures will allow for arbitration.

STEP IV: ARBITRATION

Time limits are usually extended in this step since arrangements must be made with an outside arbitrator. The American Arbitration Association is one organization which provides such a service to employers on a fee basis. The fee ($2000.00 and up) may be paid by the party requesting arbitration, split by employer and employee, or fully paid by the employer at all times. Even when arbitration is built, into the grievance procedure, it is infrequently

> used. Less than one percent of grievances are found to go to arbitration. (Glueck, 1974, p. 597)

The following chart shows the previously discussed procedure with possible time limits inserted.

EVENT: February 1, 1977, Discipline Administered

Informal Phase:

Employee discusses grievance with immediate supervisor. Supervisor upholds disciplinary action.	10 working days from event to initiation of Step I.

FORMAL PHASE:

STEP I	- Employee brings forward written grievance on February 7, 1977.	10 working days from event to initiation of Step I.
	- Supervisor holds meeting with employee.	Within 5 working days after receipt of grievance.
	- Supervisor denies grievance	Within 5 working days after meeting.
	Employee takes grievance to Step II	Within 5 working days after receipt of answer.
STEP II	- Mid management meets with employee	Within 5 working days after receipt of request.
	- Mid management responds/ denies grievance	Within 5 working days after meeting.
	Employee takes grievance to Step III	Within 10 working days from receipt of answer.
STEP III	- Personnel department meets with employee	Within 10 working days after receipt of request.
	Personnel department responds/denies grievance	Within 10 working days after meeting.
	Employee takes grievance to Step IV	Within 10 working days from receipt of answer.
	Personnel department request arbitration	Within 5 working days from receipt of request.

STEP IV - Arbitration held	Within 30 calendar days from receipt of organizations request.
Response given	Within 30 calendar days from arbitration vesting.

The appeal process is unique to the public service. However, since it covers so many employers nation-wide, its influence is extensive and, therefore, should be investigated by students of personnel administration. In the public service the appeal process is felt to serve two purposes. First, where public jurisdictions are politics-ridden, the formal right to appeal may be the only protection an employee would have from capricious administrative action. Second, even in a service with a well-structured merit system, the appeal procedure is necessary to balance hasty or incorrect decisions. (Stahl, 1971, p. 315)

Structurally, the appeal process is designed to have appeals heard by a tripartite board. The board can be elected by the employees and the board selects its own chairperson. "Occasionally, representation of the general public is required on appeal boards." (Stahl, 1971, p. 315)

The board may be advisory in nature or may assume the role of an administrative court. Advisory boards are convened at the request of the employee after disciplinary action has been taken, the procedures are informal, and decisions are not binding. Trial type boards are convened prior to disciplinary action and in effect determine what disciplinary action is to be taken; procedures are formalized, and actions are final.

Some jurisdictions establish permanent appeal boards. These are usually located in the central personnel agency and will hear all types of appeals. The permanent Board of Appeals and Review in the U.S. Civil Service Commission is such a board and will act on such varied appeals as applicants objecting to examination ratings to disciplinary actions. (Stahl, 1971, p. 316)

Discipline and grievance procedures do serve different purposes, yet they should be considered together. Both are problem solving mechanisms and serve to balance the needs of the employee and the organization. Together, these formalized procedures open channels of communication, improve employee morale and productivity, and promote institutional equity and harmony.

STUDY QUESTIONS

9. Why are grievance procedures considered necessary?

10. Under what conditions is it necessary to work through all of the steps of the grievance procedure?

11. How does an appeal differ from a grievance?

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Glueck, William, Personnel: A Diagnostic Approach. Dallas, Texas: Business Publications, Inc., 1974.

Stahl, Glenn, Public Personnel Administration. New York: Harper and Row Publishers, 1971.

ASSIGNMENT

The following question should be answered as completely as possible on separate paper. Two copies of your responses should be mailed to the instructor. One copy will be returned to you with the instructor's comments and the other will be retained as part of your course record.

1. *Discuss both the discipline and grievance procedures with a supervisory and a non-supervisory employee. Compare and contrast their impressions on these aspects of each system:*
   a. *the structure (of the discipline and grievance system);*
   b. *the goals and objectives;*
   c. *problems which each system encounters;*
   d. *the individual's (with whom you speak) role in the processes and their general feelings about the systems.*

STUDY QUESTIONS

Answer Key

1. Discipline process concerned with on-the-job behavior, behavior which is work related. The basis for management's establishment of discipline processes is their concern for effective and productive work performance. Management is also concerned with the employees adherence to work rules.

2. Size and stability: Size and stability will affect the type of behavior the organization can expect from its employees and the type of structure the organization can build.

   Leadership: Procedures will be influenced by the type of leadership.

   Employees: Employees will respond to the discipline system based upon their experiences and backgrounds.

   Work groups: The group will establish norms and determine what is generally acceptable for all employees.

   Laws: Laws can define and restrict employer actions.

   Unions: They will work jointly with management to determine what is acceptable.

3. a. Management establishment of work and behavior rules:

   - should cover work related behavior.
   - can be established various ways.
   - Rules should be mutually acceptable.

   b. Communication:

   - Employees must be informed of what behavior is expected of them.
   - Various mechanisms, such as handbooks, staff announcements and union contracts, can be used.
   - Communication should be continuous.

   c. Tool to assess behavior:

   - Formalized tool, such as performance evaluation, is necessary.
   - Needed to avoid arbitrary and capricious supervisory action.

d. Punitive action:

   - Should consider the type, severity, and frequency of rule-breaking behavior.
   - Discipline is usually progressive.
   - Standards for treatment are necessary to assure equity.

4. Approaches are modern or traditional. Traditional approach is punitive. Crimes are listed, punishment for each is established, this information is communicated and when rules are broken, punishment is applied. The modern approach is less punishment-oriented and structured more to behavior modification. It is objective-oriented.

5. The traditional approach perceives the employees as being the receivers of actions. It is a one way process in which the employee may not participate or is not perceived as being of equal status as the supervisor. It assumes that "people do not change" and, therefore, must be "controlled" by those who "know best." It assumes that others will be intimidated and controlled by actions taken against one of their group.

   The modern approach accepts the maturity and intelligence of the worker and realizes that discipline must be voluntarily accepted by the individual to be accepted by the group. It also assumes that employees can and will change their behavior if they believe it should be changed. The system deals with human beings not machines and should, therefore, be flexible.

6. a. Peer: Independent or related peers evaluate employee behavior and recommend action. It is found in the professions, colleges, and universities.

   b. Modified hierarchical: Discipline is administered through regular channels but third parties are included in the process to review facts and determine if proper action has been taken.

   c. Hierarchical: It is traditional and is administered by the supervisor who can act as policeman, judge, and jury. It is the most commonly found system.

   d. Quasi-judicial: It requires an independent outsider whose function is similar to the arbitrator in union situations.

7. a. Informal discussions: Takes the form of a counseling session or a "chewing out." It should be based on the facts of the problem and be directed to expected changes in behavior.

   b. Formal discussion: Used when rule-breaking behavior is repeated. Same as informal discussions, except that oral or written warnings are given, and the incident may be entered into the personnel file.

c. Reassignment: May be permanent (with loss of responsibility and staff) to force a resignation. Or, may be removed to another position and performance reviewed until individual can be called back.

d. Suspension without pay: Used for repeated or serious violations. Useful when investigation of incident is necessary.

e. Discharge: Used for serious violations or excessive repetition of ineffective behavior. Not used that frequently because it is the ultimate punishment, and unions and supervisory reluctance restrict its use.

8. a. Process should be formalized. Employees must know that management is serious.

b. Process must be communicated to the employees. They must be informed of what behavior is expected of them, how rule-breaking behavior will be treated.

c. Discipline should be timely. For the punishment to be effective it should be as close to the action as possible.

d. Process should be consistent and equitable for employee acceptance.

9. Grievance procedures address work-related problems from the employees' point of view. It recognizes that problems will develop when groups of individuals are required to work together. It balances the discipline process and provides for upward communication of problems and needs. Combined with discipline process, it promotes employee morale and productivity and institutional harmony and equity.

10. The four steps of the grievance procedure actually provide four levels--supervisor, middle manager, top manager, arbitrator--at which to resolve problems. The hope is that resolution will be achieved at the lowest possible level. However, in those cases where an employee does not feel that the grievance is being properly considered at a lower level, several additional higher level steps in the process allow for further deliberation by different persons. Ultimately, an outside party--the arbitrator--may be asked to make a decision.

11. An appeal is a special form of grievance which refers to disagreements arising from the discipline process. It represents the employees' rights to protest any disciplinary actions taken against them.